

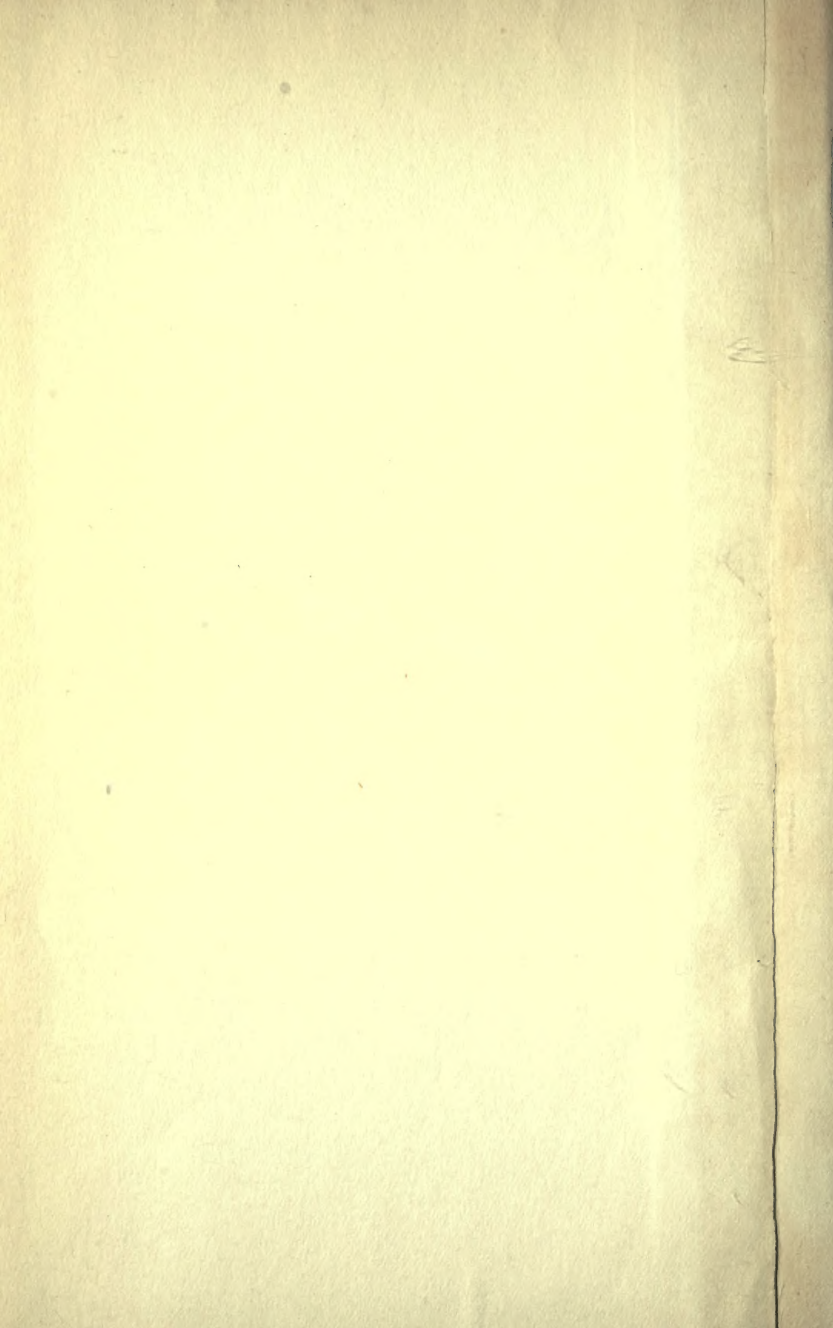
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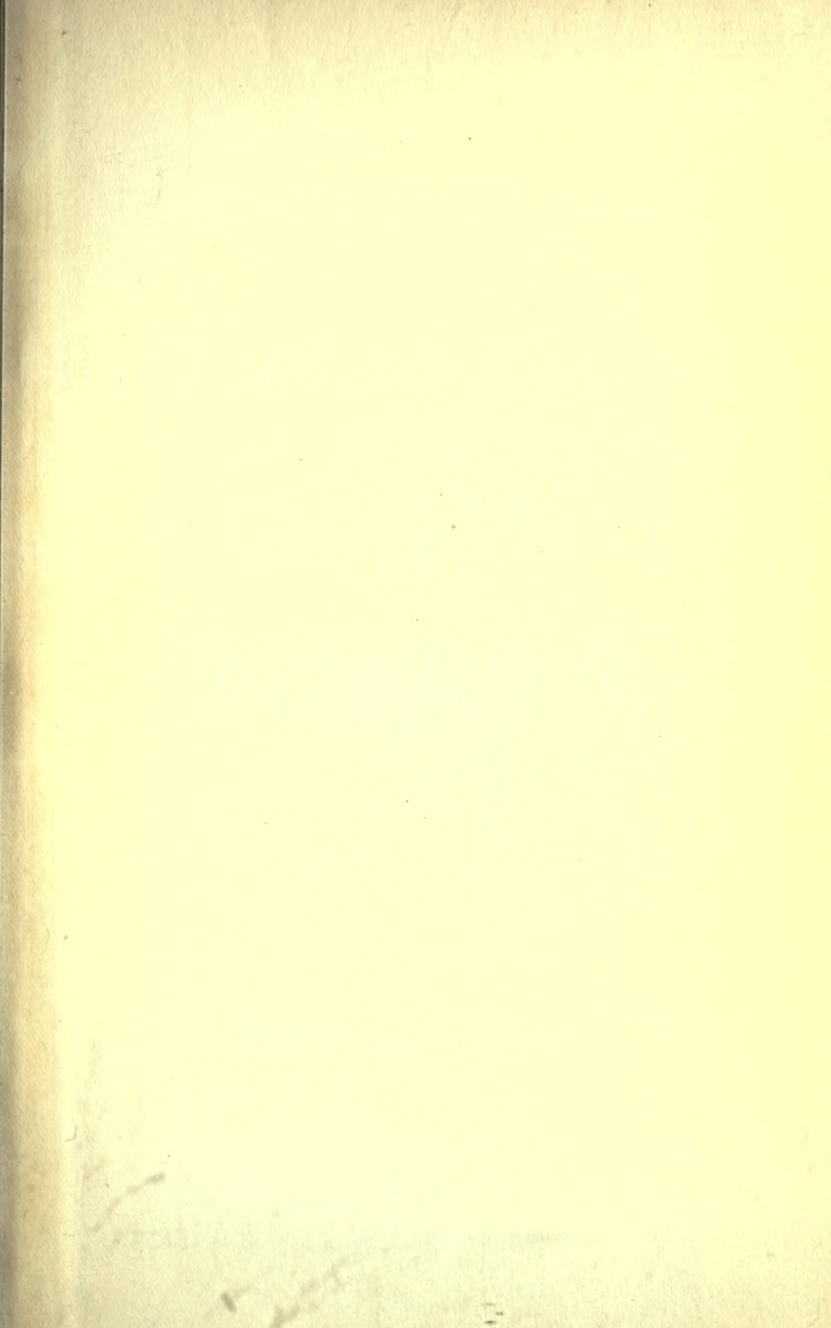


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THE

POLITICAL, SOCIAL, AND LITERARY

HISTORY OF FRANCE:

BROUGHT DOWN

TO THE MIDDLE OF THE YEAR 1874.

BY

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Trinity Hall, Cambridge;

*Author of "Guide to Science," the French Edition, entitled
"Les Phénomènes de Tous les Jours," dedicated by Authority to the late Emperor
Napoléon III., and published under the direct sanction of Monseigneur
Sibour, late Archbishop of Paris.*

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P R E F A C E .

THIS history is designed especially for schools, for private families, and for candidates of the military, civil-service, and Oxford local, examinations. In order to render it more serviceable for these respective purposes, questions from the Examination Papers of the Royal Commissioners of Education are added, with page-references to their answers.

To aid those unacquainted with French in the pronunciation of the proper names, the phonetic sound of such as present any difficulty is attached in Italic letters ; to facilitate reference, subjective words are printed in Clarendon type ; to serve as summaries of educational lectures, the Table of Contents is made a synopsis of the work ; and for examination purposes, the alphabetic index is not only very full, but is interspersed with dates and supplementary matter.

As *r* in English is never a phonetic consonant *after* a vowel, *ar* has frequently been used to represent the sound of *a* in the word *Father*.

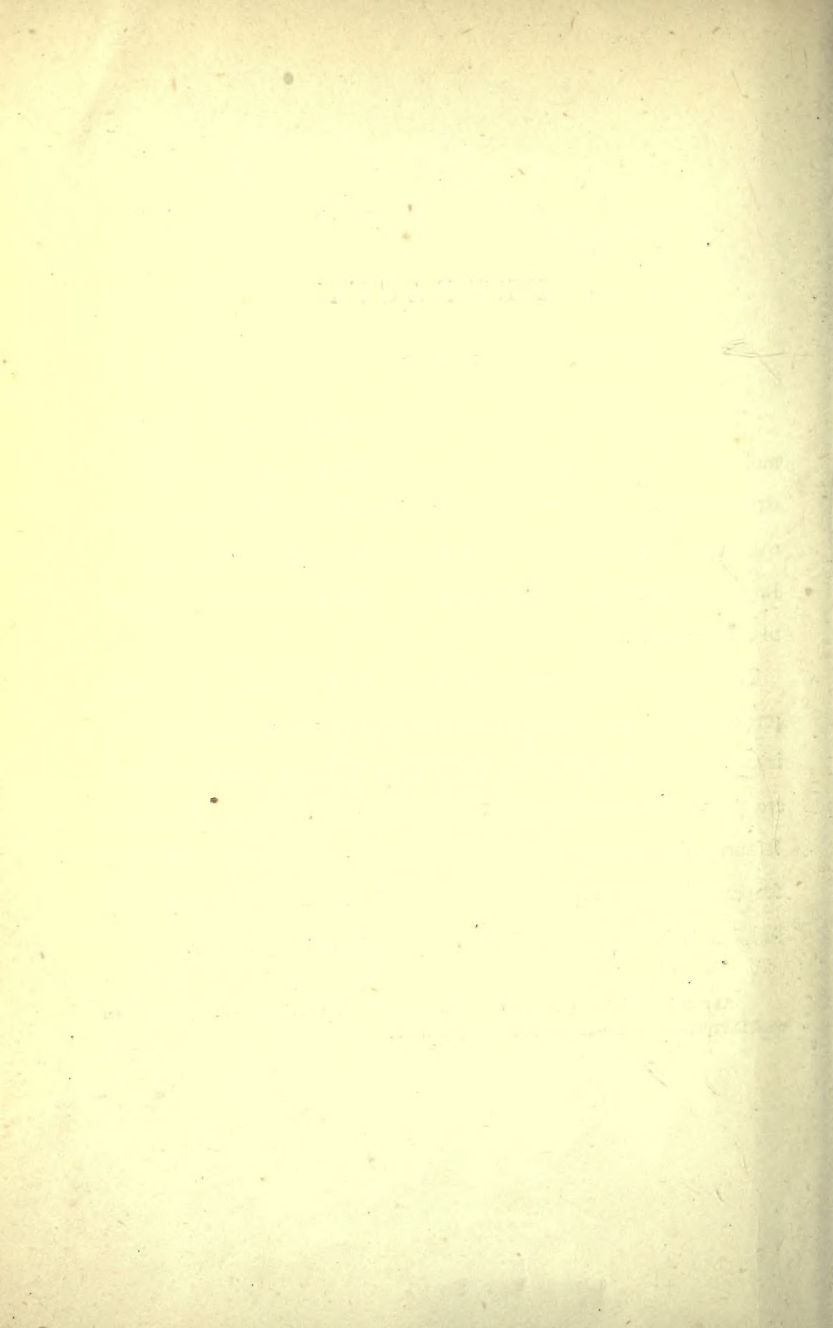


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Constantine the Great	306 „ 310.
Constantine II., Emperor of Gaul	„ 337 „ 340.
Julian the Apostate	„ 355 „ 361.
Maximus, Emperor of Gaul	„ 383 „ 388.

FIRST RACE OF KINGS. The Merovingians.

Name.	Relationship	Kingdom.	Date.	Sole King.	Age at Dth.
1 Pharamond?					
2 Clodion?					
3 MEROVEE ...	Founder	Tournay.....	448—458	50
4 Childéric I.	Son of Mérovée	Tournay.....	458—481	44
5 Clovis I.	Son of Childéric I.	Tournay.....	481—508	508—511	45
6 Childebert I.	Son of Clovis I.	Paris	511—558	60
<i>Clodomir</i>	ditto	Orléans	511—524	28
<i>Thierry</i>	ditto	Metz	511—534	39
<i>Théodebert I.</i>	Son of Thierry	Metz	534—548	
<i>Théodebald</i>	Son of Théodebert ...	Metz	548—555	
7 Clotaire	Son of Clovis	Soissons.....	511—558	558—561	64
8 Caribert	Son of Clotaire	Paris	561—567	48
<i>Gontran</i>	ditto	Orléans and Burgundy }	561—593	70
<i>Sigebert</i>	ditto	Austrasia	561—575	51
<i>Childebert</i>	Son of Sigebert	Austrasia	575—593	26
<i>Théodebert II.</i> ...	Son of Childebert ...	Burgundy also Austrasia	593—596 596—612	27
<i>Thierry II.</i>	ditto	Orléans and Burgundy }	596—612 612—613	26
9 Chilpéric I.	Son of Clotaire I. ...	Soissons.....	561—567	47
10 Clotaire II. ...	Son of Chilpéric I. ...	Paris also	567—584	613—628	45
11 Dagobert I. ...	Son of Clotaire II. ...	Soissons.....	584—613	628—638	36
<i>Aribert</i>	ditto	Austrasia.....	622—628	
<i>Les Rois Fainéants</i>		Soissons also }	628—638	
12 Clovis II.	Son of Dagobert	Aquitaine	628—631	
<i>Sigebert II.</i>	ditto	Neustria and Burgundy }	638—656	23
13 Clotaire III. ...	Son of Clovis II.	Austrasia	638—656	
14 Childeric II. ...	ditto	Neustria and Burgundy }	656—670	18
Dagobert II.	Son of Sigebert II. ...	Austrasia	656—670	670—673	20
15 Thierry III.	Son of Clovis II.	Austrasia	673—679	
16 Clovis III.	Son of Thierry III....	Neustria	673—679	679—691	39
17 Childebert III.	ditto	691—695	15
18 Dagobert III.	Son of Childebert III.	695—711	28
19 Chilpéric II. ...	Son of Childéric II.	711—715	15
20 Clotaire IV. ...	ditto	715—717	
Chilperic restored		717—719	20
21 Thierry IV.	Son of Dagobert III.	719—720	12
<i>Interregnum</i>	720—737	25
22 Childeric III.	Son of Chilpéric II.	737—742	
		742—752	
				dethroned.	

SECOND RACE of KINGS. The Carlovingsians.

Name.	Relationship.	Began to Reign.	Length of Reign.	Age at Death.
Pepin of Héristal, duke of Austrasia	Grandson of Pépin Natural son of Pépin Son of Chas. Martel ditto	752	16	53
Théodoald				
Charles Martel				
Carloman (<i>abdicates</i>)				
23 Pepin the Short (<i>le Bref</i>) ...				
Carloman and Charlemagne	Son of Pepin le Bref Son of Charlemagne Son of Louis I. Son of Charles II. Son of Louis II. ...	768	3	
24 Charlemagne alone		771	43	74
25 Louis I. the Bland (<i>le Débonnaire</i>)		814	26	62
26 Charles II. (<i>le Chauve</i>)		840	37	54
27 Louis II. (<i>le Bègue</i>)		877	2	33
28 Louis III. and Carloman II.	Grandson of Louis I. Usurper	879	3	22
29 Carloman II. alone		882	2	20
Charles le Gros (Regent)		884	4	
30 Eudes or Odo (<i>1st Capetian King</i>)		888	10	40
31 Charles III. (<i>le Simple</i>)		898	25	48
32 Robert (<i>2nd Capetian King</i>)	Son of Louis II. ...	922—923		
33 Raoul (Father of the Capetians) ...		923	13	43
34 Louis IV. (<i>d'Outre-Mer</i>)		936	18	38
35 Lothaire		954	32	45
36 Louis V. (<i>le Fainéant</i>)		986	1	20

D'Outre-Mer, i.e. from over sea, because he came from England.
Fainéant, i.e. Do-nothing or Good-for-nothing.

THIRD RACE of KINGS. The Capetians.

1 HUGUES CAPET	Founder	987	9	54
2 ROBERT (<i>le Pieux</i>)	Son of Hugues	996	35	61
3 HENRI I.	Son of Robert	1031	29	55
4 PHILIPPE I. (<i>P'Amoureux</i>)	Son of Henri I. ...	1060	48	55
5 LOUIS VI. (<i>le Gros</i>)	Son of Philippe I.	1108	29	60
6 LOUIS VII. (<i>le Jeune</i>)	Son of Louis VI. ...	1137	43	60
7 PHILIPPE II. (<i>Auguste</i>)	Son of Louis VII.	1180	43	58
8 LOUIS VIII. (<i>le Lion</i>)	Son of Philippe II.	1223	3	39
9 LOUIS IX. (<i>St. Louis</i>)	Son of Louis VIII.	1226	44	55

I. From the oldest surviving son of St. Louis.

10 Philippe III. (<i>le Hardi</i>)	Eldest Son	1270	15	40
--	------------------	------	----	----

Elder Branch of Philippe III.

11 PHILIPPE IV. (<i>le Bel</i>)	Eld. Son of Louis IX.	1285	29	46
12 LOUIS X. (<i>le Hutin</i>)	Son of Philippe IV.	1314	2	27
13 PHILIPPE V. (<i>le Long</i>)	ditto	1316	6	26
14 CHARLES IV. (<i>le Bel</i>)	ditto	1322	6	33

Cadet Branch of Philippe III., Charles de Valois.

Valois.

15 Philippe VI. (<i>de Valois</i>)	Cousin of Charles IV.	1328	22	57
16 Jean (<i>le Bon</i>)	Son of Philippe VI.	1350	14	45
17 Charles V. (<i>le Sage</i>)	Son of Jean	1364	16	43

(1) ELDER BRANCH OF CHARLES V. (Valois-line)

18 CHARLES VI. (<i>le Bien aimé</i>)	Eldest son of Chas. V.	1380	42	54
19 CHARLES VII. (<i>le Victorieux</i>)	Son of Charles VI.	1422	39	58
20 LOUIS XI.	Son of Charles VII.	1461	22	60
21 CHARLES VIII. (<i>F'Affable</i>)	Son of Louis XI. ...	1483	15	28

(2) CADET BRANCH OF CHARLES V. (Elder Stock).

(That is by Louis duc d'Orléans, second son of Charles V.)

Valois-Orléans.

Louis XII. (*le Père du Peuple*) | Gt. gds. of Chas. V. | 1498 | 17 |

(3). CADET BRANCH OF CHARLES V. (Cadet Stock).

(That is from Jean Comte d'Angoulême).

Valois-Angoulême.

Name.	Relationship.	Began to Reign.	Length of Reign.	Age at Death.
FRANÇOIS I.....	{ Second cousin of } Louis XII. ... }	1515	32	53
HENRI II. (<i>le Belliqueux</i>)	Son of François I.	1549	12	40
FRANÇOIS II.	Son of Henri II....	1559	1	16
CHARLES IX.	ditto	1560	14	24
HENRI III. (<i>le Mignon</i>)	ditto	1574	15	38

II. From Robert de Bourbon, fourth son of St. Louis.*

Bourbons.

HENRI IV. (<i>le Grand</i>)	Founder.....	1589	21	57
LOUIS XIII. (<i>le Juste</i>)	Son of Henri IV....	1610	33	42

† Elder Branch of Louis XIII.

LOUIS XIV. (<i>le Grand Monarque</i>).....	Son of Louis XIII.	1643	72	77
LOUIS XV. (<i>le Bien aimé</i>)	G.Gds.of Louis XIV.	1715	59	64
LOUIS XVI. (<i>le Martyr</i>)	Gdson of Louis XV.	1774	19	39
LOUIS XVII. (<i>never reigned</i>)	Son of Louis XVI.	10
Republic proclaimed, September 21st		1792	12	
Convention		1792	2	
Directoire		1794	5	
Consulate		1799	5	

NAPOLEON I. (Empire) | 1804 | 10 | 52

LOUIS XVIII. (*le Désiré*) brother of Louis XVI. | 1814 | 10 | 69

Empire Restored, from 20th March to 24th June | 1815 | 100 | days

Napoleon II. (never reigned)† | | |

CHARLES X., brother of Louis XVIII. and Louis XVI. | 1824 | 6 | 73

Revolution of 1830.

† Cadet Branch of Louis XIII.

(That is from Philippe duc d'Orléans younger brother of Louis XIV.)

LOUIS-PHILIPPE, King of the Barricades (*le Roi Citoyen*) | 1830 | 18 | 77

Empire Restored.

NAPOLEON III., Nephew of Napoleon I., born 1808 | 1852 | 18 |

* Antoine de Bourbon, a lineal descendant of Robert, married Marguerite, a sister of François I.

† Napoleon II., son of Napoleon I., entitled *King of Rome*, and *Duke of Reichstadt*, was proclaimed emperor of the French by way of protest. He died in Austria, 1832.



INTRODUCTION.

THE ANCIENT INHABITANTS OF FRANCE.

TILL B.C. 125.

WHAT we now call France or the "land of the Franks" was formerly termed Gaul,* the "land of the Celts," a name at one time applied by the Romans to all the North and West of Europe, except Spain.

As they became better acquainted with Germany, France, and Britain, they omitted the first and last from this vague geographical division, and divided the rest into two unequal parts, one of which they called *Cis-alpine*, and the other *Trans-alpine* Gaul.

By the former they denoted the North of Italy; while by the latter they included Belgium and France; with those parts of Holland, Germany, and Switzerland, which can be grouped with them, taking the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees as the natural boundaries.

Who were the original inhabitants of this vast territory nobody knows; but long before any historic record the Celts had formed settlements in the land; and in the time of Julius Cæsar several other races had taken possession of different parts: For example, the Belgians occupied all that tract of country lying between the Seine [*Sain*] and the Rhine; the Aquitanians the south-west corner; the Ligurians and a colony of Greeks from Asia Minor, the south-east.

Of all the different races the *Belgians* were the most warlike. They resisted the Romans with great obstinacy, and were the first to throw off the imperial yoke.

The *Aquitani*ans were of Ibērian or Spanish origin, and differed from all the other inhabitants of Gaul in language, customs, and physical peculiarity.

The *Ligurians* or Mountaineers were small in stature, but very daring, and lawlessly independent. They frequented the mountains, lived amongst the Alps, and straggled into Italy as far the Arno.

The Greeks were a colony of *Phocæans*† who settled near the mouths of the Rhone, some 600 years before the Christian era, and

* The Latin *Galli* and Greek *Gallatai* are classic forms of the word *Keltai* (Celts). The German form is *Waelchs*, whence our word *Welch*. *Gallia* or Gaul, Wales, and Walloon, all mean the "land of the Celts."

† Care must be taken not to confound Phocæa and the Phocæans with Phocis and the Phocians. The former city, now called *Fokia*, was in Asia Minor, but the latter was in Northern Greece. The people of Marseilles still call themselves Phocæans, but no vestige of the ancient town can be traced in the present city.

founded Massilia (now *Marseille*), which soon became a most flourishing city; extended its dominions over the barbarous tribes in the neighbourhood; and planted several colonies on the coast of Gaul and Spain.

Its naval and commercial greatness excited the jealousy of the Carthaginians, who made war upon it, but suffered a severe defeat. The Massilians cultivated the friendship of the Romans; and when the south-east corner of Gaul was made a Roman province, were allowed to retain their independence and constitution.

They paid very early attention to literature and philosophy; and under the first emperors Massilia became one of the chief seats of learning in Europe, to which the sons of many illustrious Romans were sent to complete their studies.

The Gauls or *Celtic tribes* thinly scattered about the middle regions south of the Seine were large in stature, of fair complexion, and red or flaxen hair. They were undoubtedly brave, and charged most desperately with their long swords; but failed in perseverance, and were easily conquered by a firm and obstinate resistance.

It was a part of this vast family, but whether from France or Germany is not certain, that marched to Rome under the command of a Brennus;* defeated the armies sent against them; took the city; and burnt it to the ground (B.C. 389).

Having held possession of the ruins for six months, the warrior-chief consented to withdraw his forces, upon receiving for ransom 1000 lbs. weight of gold. Probably he returned home with his booty; but the Romans, with their usual vaunting, assert that Camillus came upon him while he was weighing out the money, insisted on a fresh battle, slew him, and exterminated his whole army.

About a century later another Brennus invaded Greece; was defeated near Delphi; and put an end to his life (B.C. 280.)

GAUL A ROMAN PROVINCE.

FROM B.C. 125 to A.D. 59.

The Romans had long cast a wishful eye upon Gaul, but deferred any attempt to reduce it, till they had recovered from the effects of the Punic wars. Being then invited over by the Massilians to assist in driving back the mountaineers, they accepted the invitation; made it a pretext for establishing an army in the country; and,

* Brennus is no proper name, but a Latin form of the Celtic word *Brenn* (a Warrior-chief). These Brenns were appointed by the Druids in times of danger to head the armies of the confederate tribes.

in a few years, converted the whole south-east corner into a Roman province.

The first Roman colony established in Gaul was by Sextius the consul, who built the town of Aix (*Aquæ Sextiæ*), so called from its mineral waters (B.C. 121).

The next was founded by the consul Martius, near the river Narbo [now *Aude*], and called Narbo-Martius, since corrupted into Narbonne (B.C. 118). This colony soon rivalled Massilia in size and population; and it was here that, some years later, Julius Cæsar settled the veterans of his famous tenth legion.

¶ When the natives perceived that the Romans intended to establish themselves permanently in the country, and were making continual encroachments, they formed themselves into a *kumri* or league to drive them out (B.C. 113).

Many encounters took place with varying success, but when Marius was appointed consul for the fourth time, he marched against the confederates, and so utterly discomfited them, that the league was dissolved (B.C. 112).

It was this league that the Romans called the *Cimbri*, mistaking the word "*Kumri*" for the name of a people.

In B.C. 59 Julius Cæsar obtained the command of the army in Gaul; and, in seven years, reduced the whole country to a Roman province (B.C. 51).

¶ Of those who resisted him, by far the most celebrated was Vercingëtōrix, general of the Arverni,* who carried on war with him for some time with great success. Finding resistance hopeless, he surrendered himself at length to the invader; and Cæsar, with a vengeance unworthy of his great name, led him in chains to Rome, and afterwards put him to death.

GAUL UNDER THE ROMANS.

FROM B.C. 51 to A.D. 481.

When Cæsar had fully established his authority in Gaul, he changed his policy towards the vanquished, and made their yoke as light as possible. Though he imposed upon them a tribute, he called it by the soothing name of *military pay*. Their best warriors he engaged in his army; bestowed upon the deserving both riches and honours; and advanced some even to the rank of Roman senators.

Augustus (A.D. 27) divided the country into four provinces: *Gallia Narbonensis* corresponding to the ancient provinces of Langüdoc, Provence, and Dauphiné; *Aquitania*, the south-west part

* Arverni dwelt in what is now called *Auvergne*, in the south of France.

between the Loire and the Pyrenees; *Lugdunensis*, between the Loire and the Seine; and *Belgica*, between the Seine and the Rhine.

The first of these (*Gallia Narbonensis*) belonged to the Roman senate, and was governed by a proconsul. It was not unfrequently called *Gallia Braccata*, from the “braccæ” or trousers which the natives wore, in common with the Scythians and Persians.

The other three belonged to the emperor; were governed by ministers of the crown called legates (*legāti*); and went by the familiar name of *Gallia comata*, from the “coma” or long hair of the inhabitants.

Claudius (A.D. 41—53) abolished Druidism in Gaul. The natives had gradually become Romanized; the Roman dress, the Roman religion, the Roman civilization, the Roman language, manners, and customs, were very generally affected, so that the natives almost lost their individuality.

Diocletian (286). This state of things continued for more than 200 years, when Diocletian, thinking the Roman empire too unwieldy, divided it into four governments: the East, Italy, Illyricum, and Gaul. The *East* he retained in his own hands; *Italy* he intrusted to Maximian; *Illyricum* to Galerius; and *Gaul* to Constantius.

Each of the first two rulers was entitled *Augustus*, and each of the last two *Cæsar*.

BENEFITS CONFERRED ON GAUL BY THE ROMANS.

Gaul, from first to last, was 530 years under the Roman sway. During the former half of this long period, it made considerable advances in civilization.

It was a period of comparative repose; and political union, internal tranquillity, the security of a strong government, and the certainty of impartial justice, did much for its prosperity. Agriculture was brought to great perfection, commerce was extended, industry encouraged, and wealth accumulated. The very climate was improved by better tillage; and many choice fruits, such as the vine and olive, introduced by the Romans, have proved even to the present hour a source of enormous private and public revenue to the nation.

Among other boons conferred on the Gauls by the Romans not the least is the introduction of Christianity in the first half of the second century. And few countries can show such a phalanx of great names in the cause of Christianity, as ancient Gaul, while it still lay under the dominion of Rome.

There was **St. Irenæus** (120—202) bishop of Lyons, the author of a book *Against Heresies* still extant;

St. Denys* (205—272) patron saint of France and first bishop of Paris, who founded several churches; and, having laboured in the work of an evangelist for 22 years, won a martyr's crown in the great persecution of Valerian.

* St. Denys pronounce Sahn-Kneé.

St. Hilary (300—368) bishop of Poitiers, who directed his energies against the Arian heresy lately introduced into Gaul; and who, from the vehemence of his style, was called *The Rhone of Christian eloquence*.

St. Martin (316—397), bishop of Tours, called *The Apostle of Gaul*, a disciple of St. Hilary; who strenuously resisted the persecution of heretics, and was pre-eminent for his self-denial and works of charity.

Lastly, **St. Germain** (358—448), bishop of Auxerre, one of the brightest ornaments of the early church, who twice visited Britain to oppose the Pelagian heresy, and preached there in the public market-places to overwhelming throngs of people.

St. Denys, according to tradition, carried his head, after martyrdom, for six miles, and then deliberately laid it down on the spot where stands the present cathedral bearing his name. This absurd tale took its rise from an ancient *painting*, in which the artist, to represent the martyrdom of the bishop, drew a headless body; but in order that the trunk might be recognized, placed the head in front between the martyr's hands.

St. Martin was a military tribune before his conversion; and, according to tradition, divided his coat with a naked beggar who craved alms of him before the city gate of Amiens. At night, the story says, Christ himself appeared to the soldier arrayed in this very garment.

ROMAN ANTIQUITIES IN FRANCE.

There are a vast number of Roman antiquities in France, the most celebrated of which are the following:

(1) In **Paris**. The famous *Palais-des-Thermes*,* once the abode of the Roman government of Gaul, as well as of the kings of the 1st and 2nd dynasties. Here Julian fixed his residence when he was *Cæsar* of Gaul; and here was he dwelling, when he was proclaimed emperor by his troops.

The only perfect part of this ancient palace now extant is a vast hall, formerly the chamber of cold baths (*frigidarium*), which has been carefully restored by the present emperor.

At the furthest extremity, on the right-hand side, is a cellar leading to the hot-air chamber (*tepidarium*), where persons went to prepare themselves for the warm baths.

In the great "hall" the very niches where the bathing-tubs were kept, the place where the cistern stood, and even the bedding of the water-pipes, are distinctly visible. In the yard is the vaulted chamber which once contained the apparatus for heating the several apartments (*hypocaustum*).

(2) **Arles** [*Arl*], near the mouth of the Rhone, was the seat of a prefect under the Romans, and here are several noble antiquities, especially the ruins of a theatre, a magnificent amphitheatre capable of containing more than 20,000 spectators, the ruins of the palace of Constantine the Great who resided here, a granite obelisk discovered in 1389 in the mud of the Rhone, a Roman cemetery (*Elysian fields*), and ruins of an aqueduct, triumphal arch, and of one or two temples.

(3) At **Frejus** [*Fray-zhū*], a corruption of *Forum Julii*, founded by Julius Cæsar, are the ruins of an amphitheatre, a pharos, an aqueduct, and two gates, one called the *Porte Cæsar* and the other the *Porte Dorée*. In the time of the Romans Fréjus contained 100,000 inhabitants, it was the great arsenal of Augustus, and here Agricola, the father-in-law of Tacitus, was born.

(4) At **Nismes** [*Neem*], are found the finest Roman antiquities in existence, consisting of an amphitheatre, a Corinthian temple, a tower, a gate called the *Porte de Cæsar*, and a handsome fountain and temple of Diana.

* *Palais-des-Thermes* pronounce Palla da ta'ern.

The Amphitheatre or arena (*les arènes*) is often compared to the great Colisæum of Rome. It is 437 feet long, 332 wide, and 70 high. It was capable of accommodating at least 20,000 spectators.

The temple, now called the *Maison-Carrée*, is a perfect gem of architecture in admirable preservation. It is decorated with 30 Corinthian columns, ten of which form the portico.

The *Tour Magne** stands on the top of a hill. It was once 125 feet high, but now not more than 79.

Some few miles from Nismes is a beautiful Roman aqueduct, now called the *Pont-du-Gard*. All along the banks of the Rhone, from Arles to Lyons are numerous antiquities.

At Narbonne, the principal place of the Roman arms in Gaul till the time of Augustus, are several interesting remains.

At Vienne are ruins of a triumphal arch, a theatre, amphitheatre, aqueduct, temple of Augustus, and naumachia (for sham naval engagements).

In Normandy is a very singular amphitheatre of earth.

* Tour Magne pronounce Too-r Marn.

GAUL OVER-RUN BY BARBARIANS.

FROM 254 TO 481.

Of the natural boundaries of the Roman province of Gaul, by far the most important was the river Rhine, as it formed the line of demarcation between the empire on the one hand, and the multitudinous hordes of half-savages which swarmed on the other.

On this side were wealth and civilization; on that, barbarism and want. The genius of barbarism, hanging on the outskirts of civilization, is essentially aggressive, and the natural state between such neighbours is one of war.

As long as the Roman legions preserved their ancient discipline and spirit, the turbulence of the German tribes was kept in check, and the barrier of the empire maintained; but as the strength of Rome declined, the boldness of the hordes increased; and, by the close of the fifth century, several of them had effected a settlement in the country.

The **Burgundians** (406—418) were the first of the barbarians to settle in Gaul. They were a part of the Vandal confederacy, to whom the emperor Jovian consigned a large territory near the Seine. In the reign of Honorius they shifted their position to the south-east; and finally occupied all that country which lies between the Jura mountains, the Durance, and the Rhone. Lyons was their capital.

They were by far the most civilized of all the barbarians, and were excellent carpenters, masons, and smiths. They had embraced the Christian religion before they crossed the Rhine, but it was that form of it called the Arian heresy.

The **West-Goths** (412—450) who were also Arians, were the next to follow. Early in the fifth century they had taken and plundered Rome, under the command of Alaric; and two years later established a kingdom in the south of Gaul, having Toulouse for its capital.

The emperor Honorius settled on them the whole of Aquitania in exchange for a part of Spain. Clovis succeeded in driving them back, and confining them to the sea-board of the gulf of Lyons.

The **Franks** (418—500) or Freemen, were German tribes dwelling near the Lower Rhine and leagued together into two great confederacies. One of these was called the Salian from the river Sala or Yssel, and the other the Repuarian, from *ripa* the bank of a river. The chief tribe of the Salian Franks was that called the Sigambrian.

The Salian Franks after several unsuccessful attempts succeeded at last in establishing themselves in Belgium, where for a time they became the guardians of the Rhine and bulwark of Gaul.

Pharamond, son of Marcomir, was once considered the first king of the Franks; but his very existence is doubtful, and his right to the title of king is now universally rejected.

Clodion, the *long-haired*, passes for the successor of Pharamond; and those who credit his existence say that he advanced as conqueror to the banks of the Somme, where he was defeated by Aëtius the Roman general.

Clodion wore long hair, a mark of distinction introduced from Germany. All his successors followed the same fashion, and have been termed "the long-haired kings" (*les rois chevelures*).

The custom of distinguishing chieftains by the length of their hair was by no means peculiar. It will be remembered that Homer calls the magnates of the confederate Greek army "The long-haired Greeks."

Merovæus* (448—458) or Mer-wig, son-in-law of Clodion, is generally given as the third king of the Salian Franks. It is from him the first dynasty of France is termed the *Merovingian*. According to tradition, this Mer-wig was sent to Rome in his youth to get the peace, concluded by Aëtius, ratified by the emperor.

In 451 he united with the Roman army against Attila, king of the Huns, who had entered Gaul like a destroying angel. A most frightful battle was fought in the **Catalaunian Plains**, in Champagne, where Attila was vanquished and compelled to withdraw from Gaul.

Nothing more is recorded of Mer-wig. It is supposed that he reigned about 10 years, and was succeeded by his son Childéric.

Childéric (458—481), a very unworthy prince, was driven from his throne for his infamous conduct. The Franks then chose for their leader Ægidius, the master-general of the Roman forces in Gaul.

Ægidius was immediately outlawed by the senate, and declared the enemy of the Roman emperor. Troubles threatened him on

* Merovæus is the Latin form, and Mérovée the French form of Mer-wig, a compound of *Mer* (great) and *wig* (warrior).

every side, and at the expiration of eight years, the Franks abandoned him, and recalled Childéric.

Ægidius retired to Soissons [*Swois-so'ng*], where he died a violent death, and his estates descended to his son Syagrius (464).

Childéric was buried at Tournay, the capital of his kingdom; and when in 1653 his tomb was opened, several curious relics were found, amongst others a globe of crystal. These relics are carefully preserved in the National Library of Paris.

CLOVIS.

REIGNED 30 YEARS. FROM 481 TO 511.

Contemporary with the Heptarchy.

Kingdom. The only territory inherited by Clovis was West Flanders, the department called *du Nord* as far as Cambray, and that called *Pas-de-Calais* as far as the river Lys. But before the close of his reign his kingdom embraced all France (except Burgundy and the coast-land of the Gulf of Lyons), and all the territories lying between France and the Rhine.

Married Clotilde, daughter of Chilpéric, king of the Burgundians, a zealous Christian, who induced her husband to be baptized.

Issue. Thierry, Clodomir, Chilbert, and Clotaire.

Royal Residence. The palace of Julian in the Ile-de-Paris.

Clovis a corruption of Chlotwig, a compound of *Chlot* (celebrated) and *wig* (warrior). His father's name Childéric is compounded of *childe* (lord) and *ric* (king). Lord Byron calls one of his heroes "Childe Harold," equivalent to Lord Harold.

Clovis, son of Childéric, and grandson of Merovæus, was only 15 years old when his father died; but he was instantly raised upon a buckler in acknowledgment of his election to his father's government.

His whole territory was limited to the little kingdom of Tournay. Other clans of the same tribe were settled at Terouenne on the Lys, at Cambray, and at Mans on the river Sarthe [*Sart.*]

Beauvais, Soissons, Amiens, Troyes, and Reims [*Rah'nce*], with their dependencies, were governed by Syagrius, the Roman, in defiance of the senate; and this was all that remained in Gaul, even in name, to the fallen empire of the west.

Alsace and Lorraine, with a large part of Germany, belonged to the Alemanni; Armorica or Brittany, to the Bretons; all the south of Gaul, from the river Loire to the Pyrenees, to the West Goths; and the basin of the Rhone to the Burgundians.

Battle of Soissons (486). Clovis first directed his arms against Syagrius, and defeated him in a battle near Soissons. After which he extended his kingdom to the banks of the Seine; moved from Tournay; and made Soissons the capital of his kingdom.

As Syagrius, like his father, had been declared the *enemy of the empire*, the news of his defeat was very acceptable to the Roman

senate, which conferred upon the conqueror the titles of consul and patrician.

Battle of Tolbiac (496). His next expedition was against the Alemanni, whom he repulsed with great slaughter at Tolbiac, now called Zulpich, near Cologne; and compelled the cession of all their territories between the Moselle and the Rhine.

It was in this engagement he made a vow, while his soldiers were wavering, that if the God of his wife Clotilde granted him the victory, he would become a Christian.

When the blood-stained warrior, after the battle, presented himself in the cathedral at Reims, with his sister and 3000 of his followers, the aged prelate said to him "Sigambrian, henceforth shalt thou burn that which thou hast worshipped, and worship that which thou hast despised."

Sigambrian. The Sigambri were the chief tribe of the Salian Franks.

We are not to suppose that any change of heart had taken place in Clovis, but it is quite certain that no act could have been more politic. The pope Anastasius saluted him as "The most Christian King;" and the clergy were glad to play him off against the other princes of Gaul, who were of the Arian heresy.

From this moment his success was rapid and almost bloodless. All the cities of the Loire, except those of America, opened their gates to him; and he ruled from the Loire to the river Rhine.

Defeat of the Burgundians (501).—His third great expedition was against the Burgundians, to which he was urged by the bishops of that country.

The ostensible plea for this aggression was vengeance against Gondebaud, their king, for having murdered Chilpéric, the father of queen Clotilde; but the real cause was the hatred of the clergy against him, because he was an Arian.

Gondebaud was easily vanquished; and the only terms imposed upon him were that he and all his subjects should renounce their heretical opinions, and return to the bosom of "holy church." By this treaty the authority of the pope was restored in all the cities lying between the Rhône and the Saône [*Sone*].

The kingdom of the Burgundians continued only 33 years longer, and was then seized upon by three of the sons of Clovis and divided among them.

Battle of Vougle' (507). On a similar pretence of zeal for the church, Clovis next attacked Aläric II., king of the West-Goths, who claimed dominion of all the south of France, west of the Rhône up to the river Loire [*Lwor*].

"It is very annoying," said he to his warriors, "that these heretics should occupy all the garden-land of Gaul; let us up and drive them out."

This speech was received with acclamations; and the army followed their favourite leader to Vouglé, near Poitiers, where Alâric had halted to give him battle.

The struggle was fierce and sanguinary; Alâric was slain; and the whole territory of the West-Goths in Gaul, was added to the kingdom of the Franks.

Next year Theodore the Great, king of Italy, marched against Clovis, to avenge the death of Alaric his son-in-law; and a battle was fought at Arles [*Arl*], in which Clovis was defeated (508).

By a treaty of peace the West-Goths were now allowed to retain all that strip of coast which forms the gulf of Lyons, from the mouth of the Rhone to the Pyrenees; but all the rest of their territory was given up to Clovis.*

Paris made the **Capital** of France. Soon after this encounter with Theodoric, Anastasius, emperor of the East, sent Clovis a purple mantle and golden crown, and bestowed upon him the royal title of *Augustus*.

He now moved his capital from Soissons to Paris, and occupied the palace of Julian, which continued to be the residence of the chief magistrate of France to the end of the dynasty.

Clovis decorated his new capital with a Christian church, which he dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul. It was subsequently converted into the Abbey of St. Geneviève [*Zhaun-vě-ave*], and is now called the college of Henri IV.

Death of Clovis (511). Clovis died in Paris in the 55th year of his age, and the 30th of his reign, leaving his kingdom between his four sons.

In the course of 22 years he extended the little kingdom of Tournay to all that enormous country bordered by the Rhine, the Saône, and the Rhône, with the exception of Brittany in the north-east, and the narrow kingdom of the West-Goths round the gulf of Lyons.

He was a man of great prudence and vigour; munificent to the church, by whom he was called "Its eldest Son;" and after death was canonized by his wife Clotilde.

* The West-Goths continued to retain this grant for 222 years, when Charles Martel drove them wholly out of France. Some years later they returned to their old quarters, and were finally expelled by Pepin in 759.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF CLOVIS.

St. Genevieve (423—512), the patron saint of Paris, was by far the most important person in the reign of Clovis. She was born at Nanterre, near Paris; and followed in early life the simple occupation of a shepherdess; but at the death of her parents, removed to Paris; consecrated herself to God; and lived a life of great piety and abstinence.

When Attila invaded Gaul, the Parisians were panic-struck, and would have abandoned their city, had not Geneviève restrained them, by "predicting that Paris would be spared." Attila certainly withdrew his forces without attacking the city; and the Parisians ascribed their safety to her prayers.

Somewhat later the same people were visited by a dearth; and, according to tradition, this visitation also was removed by the intercessions of the Nanterre shepherdess.

St. Geneviève died at a very advanced age, and was buried in the church which Clovis had built; where for several centuries her relics were annually exposed to view on the 3rd of January.

On the destruction of this edifice, they were removed to the church called *St. Etienne-du-Mont*, where they are still preserved; and for eight days every year are visited by immense crowds.

St. Geneviève being canonized, was made the patron saint of Paris; and, in times of great distress, or when some extraordinary favour is to be sought from heaven, her image is carried in procession with great pomp and ceremony.

EFFECTS OF THE GERMANIC INVASIONS.

The institutions, habits, and organization of the Franks in Gaul, must not be inferred from those of the same race in their native land. The position, wants, and constitution of the two people were totally different; and it would have been impossible to transfer to a war-faring band in a foreign country, the laws and customs of a nation settled and established.

Hence a very common error is to be guarded against, that of presuming the Franks in Gaul to be the counterpart of the Franks in Germany.

The Franks in Germany had their chiefs, their leudes or thanes, their staff or *antrustions*, and their civil judges or *mord-domes*; but in Gaul they must have resembled, in a great measure at least, a bandit or free company.

The king or captain of a band had no regal rank or prescriptive authority. His followers were not his subjects, but his companions; who ranged under him of their own accord; left him when they liked; and undertook no expedition against their will.

In such a society there must of necessity be much of the spirit of clanship, a very loose moral discipline, a strict military one, and a prodigality in the leader more binding than law.

Of course pillage would be the prime object of such adventurers; and though the leader would take the largest share, he would not of necessity be the richest man, as he would be expected to reward every service with ungrudging liberality.

When Clovis became master of Gaul, his chief followers would gradually become the proprietors of the soil. He would reward from time to time his distinguished warriors with grants of land, called fees. The persons thus provided for would depart to inhabit their tenement, carrying with them a host of companions and retainers. A village would gather round the great house, not a village of free cotters, but one of the labourers and servants employed upon the estate.

The operation of such a system in a few years would be felt in the following manner:

(1) The leader or captain, being no longer kept in check by his great warriors, would grow more arrogant; and the *royal* principle would be rapidly developed.

(2) The fiefes would grow into a landed *aristocracy*, powerful, wealthy, and ungovernable.

(3) The people, dispossessed of their estates, robbed and plundered without redress, and cared for by no one, would sink lower and lower, and become more abject and servile, as the line between them and their foreign lords became more broadly marked.

(4) Lastly, the unity of the original band would be broken up. Each landed proprietor would have his own separate interest. And the nation would become an ill-cemented throng of isolated lords, apt to be disturbed whenever one more ambitious than the rest chose to make aggressions.

The following anecdote will shew how limited was the kingly power of Clovis. After the battle of Soissons, he wished to appropriate a valuable vase, but one of the warriors stepped forward, and broke it to atoms with his battle-axe, saying, "Thou shalt have thy share only, like the rest of us." Clovis dissembled his anger, but did not forget the insult; and one day finding the same warrior had neglected to clean his axe, snatched it out of his hand and split his skull, saying, "Remember the vase of Soissons."

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### THE INFLUENCE OF THE CHURCH IN THE BARBARIAN PERIOD.

The only power which struggled against barbarism, and the only check upon the fierce passions of the conquerors, was the church.

The bishops were the natural chiefs of the large towns. They governed them as magistrates; protected them by their power; and represented them before the barbarians.

When Clovis was baptized they became his chief counsellors, and advised him how to act towards the vanquished people; and thus were they the moulders of the nascent royalty.

A third position now opened to them, that of landed proprietors. They shared with the warriors in the possession of the soil.

Thus was their influence three-fold: They were the advisers of the crown; the protectors of the people; and the rivals of the warrior chiefs.

There can be no doubt that in those times they were the salt of the earth. They were the most learned, intelligent, and experienced body in the nation; and their influence on a whole was directed to laudable objects.

Prosperity and power, brought with them their usual consequences, arrogance and corruption. And later kings had to do battle with the church, not for its defence of liberty and letters, but for its obstinate resistance of progress, and its efforts to enslave.

¶ Of course the wild hordes which were baptized in masses without having received religious instruction, could know very little of the doctrines and spirit of Christianity. They had been brought up in idolatry; and naturally looked upon God as a sort of Odin, and Jesus Christ as a deified hero.

They treated their new "deities" according to their knowledge; and when they acted wickedly thought to avert their displeasure by bribes. Hence their lavish presents to the clergy, their magnificent churches, and their religious foundations.

Being wholly unable to write and read, the clergy had to instruct them by sensible objects; and hence the pomp and pageantry, the signs and symbols, the carnal threats and promises, introduced.

To us who have been taught from infancy the simplicity and spirituality of the gospel, this show and grandeur seem inconsistent; but they were not without their wholesome influence among those gross and barbarous people.



## DYNASTY OF CLOVIS.

FROM 511 TO 638.

The rest of the Merovingian dynasty, except Dagobert, were utterly worthless; and the only incidents recorded in their reigns are sanguinary quarrels, family feuds, murders, wars, and crimes too odious to deserve relation.

It was customary among the Franks for all sons, at the death of their father, to share alike; consequently, every time a king died, leaving two or more sons, his kingdom was divided, and a civil war ensued.

Clovis left four sons, each of whom had his separate court and seat of government: Thierry, the eldest, resided at Metz [*Mess*]; Clodōmir at Orléans; Childēbert at Paris; and Clotaire, the youngest, at Soissons [*Swois-so'ng*].

Of these four, Clodōmir died first, leaving three infants; two of whom were murdered by their uncle Clotaire; and the other, Cloudoald, made his escape and became a monk.

Afterwards he founded a monastery near Paris; and both the monastery and the suburb in which it stood were called by his name, since shortened into St. Cloud [*San Cloo*].

Soon after the death of Clodomir, the three surviving brothers combined against the king of Burgundy; dethroned him; and partitioned his dominions among themselves.

Clotaire, the youngest, outlived his brothers, and re-united the kingdom for a short time; but as he left four sons, the contentions and crimes of the last half century were again repeated with very little variation.

Of the three sons of Clotaire I., the eldest soon died; and the entire kingdom was divided into three parts called Neustria, Austrasia, and Burgundy.

**Neustria**, or the new kingdom, was all that part of France encompassed by the Loire and the Meuse (supposing them joined together), and excepting the peninsula of Bretagne (*Bre-tan'y*).

**Austrasia**, or the eastern kingdom, lay east of the river Meuse. Lorraine and Alsace, with Bavaria, Barden, and Wurtemberg, formed this kingdom.

Subsequently it was enlarged by the addition of all the south of France, bounded by the Garonne, and carrying the branch, called the Tarn, up to the river Rhône.\*

\* At the accession of Charlemagne the name of Austrasia was lost; and that of Neustria in 843 at the treaty of Verdun. Austrasia merged into Germany, and Neustria into France. NEUSTRIA is *Neust-reich* [new kingdom]. AUSTRASIA or rather Ostrasia is *Oster-reich* [east kingdom].

**Fredegonde and Brunehaut.** The only incident worth mention during the reign of the three sons of Clotaire I. is the hatred which subsisted between the kings of Neustria and Austrasia, fomented by their wives Frédegonde and Brunehaut [*Brúno*].

This hatred gave rise to an intestine war, which for half a century desolated France, led to numerous murders, and brought about the death of both the queens.

Frédegonde, having invaded the kingdom of Austrasia, gained a complete victory; but died a few days afterwards either by poison or the dagger.

Brunehaut survived her rival 16 years; when she was seized by Clotaire II., the son of Frédegonde; and being lashed to the tail of a wild horse, was kicked to death by the infuriated animal.

This remarkable woman, who had for 48 years been the terror of her enemies, united to an active and powerful genius, the most towering ambition and unflinching recklessness of purpose.

Her crimes were frightful; but she was a great promoter of the arts; caused several roads to be constructed; built a prodigious number of churches and monasteries; and tried, not without success, to introduce into Gaul the Roman laws and literature.

**Clotaire II.** (584 to 628), son of Chilpéric and Frédegonde, succeeded to the kingdom of Neustria at four months old, but ultimately united for the third time all France under one sceptre.

The greatest event of his reign was the royal ordinance which rendered the mayors of the palace a permanent appointment.

These Mayors were the chief judges or magistrates of the nation; and after the reign of the next king, the whole power of the state passed into their hands.

**Dagobert I.** (628—638) his son, succeeded next, the wisest and most redoubtable of all the descendants of Clovis; but, like several others of the same race, he united to great religious zeal a cruel and licentious disposition.

He made enormous gifts to the clergy; filled France with his churches and convents; lived in eastern pomp and splendour; and had his court crowded with bishops, nobles, and foreign ambassadors.

Amongst other foundations he built and endowed the rich abbey of St. Denis [*San Dneé*], near Paris, celebrated as the place of sepulture of the French kings. St. Eloi was his friend and minister.

## LES ROIS FAINEANTS, THE PUPPET KINGS.

FROM 638 TO 742.

Clovis II. and his ten successors were so utterly worthless, that they have gained for themselves the ignoble appellation of the "Good-for-nothing kings" (*les Rois Fainéants*).

These kings were all parents at 15, and old men at 30, to which age only one of them attained. Clotaire IV. died at the age of 12; Clovis III. and Dagobert III. at 15; Clotaire III. at 18; Chilpéric II. at 20; Clovis II. at 23; Thierry IV. at 25; Childerbert II. at 28; and Thierry III. was the only one who outlived 30.

Fainéant [*fain'-yarn*] is from *faire-neant*, to do nothing.

**Mayors of the Palace.** The whole power of the kingdom during this century was vested in the mayors of the palace, originally superintendents of the household, and stewards of the royal *leudes* or companies.

Being also chief magistrates they were called *Mord-domes*, that is, judges of murder. The word *mord-dome* was corrupted by the Romans into *Major-domus*, and the Latin corruption, retranslated into French, became *Maire-du-Palais*.

From being the king's chief man, who superintended all his house, the palace-mayor became the head of the aristocracy; and ultimately greater than even the king himself. The most celebrated of these officers are the two Pépins, Ebroïn, and Charles Martel.

(1) **Pepin de Landen** (613—649) generally called Pépin the Elder (*le vieux*), was palace-mayor during the reign of Clotaire II., Dagobert I., and the minority of Sigebert II. He was so virtuous a magistrate, that at death he was canonized.

(2) **Ebroïn** (656—681). At the decease of Clotaire III., all France, was united again in the person of his brother Childéric. Ebroïn, a man of infamous character and most despotic temper, was at the time the palace-mayor of Neustria.

The nobles of Austrasia revolted against his tyranny; separated from the united kingdoms of Neustria and Burgundy, and placed themselves under Martin and Pépin the Fat, his cousin, a grandson of the other Pépin, whom they created their leaders or dukes.

Ebroïn lost no time in crushing this revolt; the army of the two dukes was defeated, and Martin put to death.

Pépin escaped and raised another army; but while Ebroïn was on his way to give him battle, one of his own officers cleft his head open with his sword, and left Pépin without a rival.

(3) **Pepin d'Heristal** (681—714), surnamed *The Fat* or *Corpulent*, now caused himself to be proclaimed the palace-mayor, and in this capacity ruled both kings and subjects for 32 years with absolute sway.

He placed successively on the throne Clovis III., Childéric III., and Dagobert III. But in order to mask his power, revived the Assembly called the *Champ de Mars*\* which had fallen into disuse.

These March-meetings had been held by Clovis and his immediate followers sometimes as mere pageants, such as military reviews, for the amusement of the freemen who came to offer homage to their lord, and pay him their annual gifts; sometimes they were made use of for business purposes, especially when the king wished to consult his great warriors about some intended expedition, or his bishops about some affairs of state.

Pépin the Fat revived them solely for the purpose of ceremony and amusement. The nobles and great vassals came to do homage and offer gifts; and the king in his robes of state was drawn to the place of muster in his ox-chariot, took his seat on a golden throne, gave audience to ambassadors, made a set speech, and returned home again to exercise no other royal function till the next annual show-day.

Pépin died at a very advanced age. He was called *Héristal* from his palace of Héristal on the Meuse.

(4) Charles le Martel (714—741), a natural son of Pépin d'Héristal was next created duke of Austrasia and palace-mayor. The murder of Dagobert III. freed him from his only rival. He brought Chilpéric II. from a cloister to place him on the throne; but the child had the folly to quarrel with his minister, and even tried to disseat him.

Charles now took up arms; surprised the royal camp, as it passed through the forest of Ardennes [*Ar-denn*]; and, in the battle which ensued the next day, entirely defeated the king's forces.

Upon this, Chilpéric entered into an alliance with Eudes [*Ude*], by ceding to him the kingdom of Aquitaine. Charles, however, placed on the throne another of the royal family named Clotaire, advanced against Chilpéric and Eudes, and entirely defeated them near Soissons.

After this disaster Eudes, despairing of success, delivered up Chilpéric into the hands of his antagonist. Charles treated him with the greatest courtesy, and even restored him to the throne after the death of Clotaire.

In 731 Eudes was threatened by the Arabs, and applied to the palace-mayor for aid. Charles readily responded to this appeal; and the encounter which ensued has placed his name amongst the foremost of the world's great warriors.

Never since the time of Attila had so formidable a host appeared in Gaul. Narbonne [*Nar-bonn*] had succumbed already, and now Aquitaine was threatened.

\* *Champ-de-Mars* pronounce *Sharnd-Mars'*. After 755 these Meetings were held in May, and called *Champs-de-Mai* [*Sharnd-May'*]. Napoleon I. revived them in the "Hundred Days." (1 June 1815).



Eudes collected an army; but the Saracens utterly routed it, and marched without further resistance to Bordeaux, which they consumed by fire.

While they were still revelling in the spoils, Charles halted on the plains of Poitiers. A great question was at stake, whether Europe was to acknowledge the crescent or the cross.

If the Saracens prevailed, the Mahometan religion would have been forced upon the people; and probably other nations of Europe would have been subjugated by the same power.

If the Franks prevailed, the Christian religion would continue dominant; and the power of Mahomet in Europe be crushed for ever. Never was the issue of a battle more important.

For seven days the two armies watched each other's movements without striking a blow; but at length the engagement began. The Saracen leader was Abd-el-Rahman, viceroy of Spain, who began the battle with his light cavalry. The Franks on their powerful horses received the charge without flinching; and, defended by their heavy armour, stood like a wall of iron.

Eudes at this moment appeared in the enemy's rear, and fired their camp. The Saracens were panic-struck; gave way; and Charles commanded his soldiers to advance.

Abd-el-Rahman in vain attempted to rally his troops; they fled in every direction; Abd-el-Rahman was slain; darkness alone put a stop to the carnage; and next morning no trace of the Mussulmans could be found, except in the heaps of slain which covered the whole field (732).

This was a really great victory; and Charles, who knocked down the foe and crushed them beneath his axe, as a martel or hammer crushes what it strikes, received the surname of *le Martel*, the hammer.\* It is said that 300,000 Saracens, and only 1500 Franks, fell in the encounter, but this doubtless is a gross exaggeration.

Charles Martel lived nine years longer, all-powerful and all-honoured. He defeated the Bavarians by sea, and the Frissons by land; triumphed twice over the Alemanni, and five times over the Saxons.

Though not king in name, he disposed of the kingdom at death to his three sons, Carlöman, Pépin, and Grifon.

Grifon, the youngest, was seized by his brothers, and confined in a monastery. Carlöman, the eldest, reigned 5 years, and then abdicated; leaving Pépin, surnamed The Short (*le Bref*), sole ruler of France.

Under the Carlovingians the power of the palace-mayors was very greatly curtailed, and the office wholly abolished by Hugues-Capet, the founder of the Capetian dynasty.

\* Judas Asmonæus was for a similar reason called *Maccabæus*, the hammerer.



## CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGNS OF THE ROIS FAINEANTS.

**St. Eloi** (588—659), the “patron saint of smiths and artists,” lived in this period. He was master of the mint in the reign of Clotaire II., and the intimate friend of the 1st Dagobert.

He carried the art of working in the precious metals to great perfection; and several specimens of his skill are still extant: such as the bas-relief on the tomb of St. Germain, bishop of Paris; several gold and silver shrines; and a golden throne enriched with precious stones, made for king Clotaire.

Disgusted with the world, he retired to a monastery; from which he was afterwards drawn to preside over the see of Noyon; in which high office he acquitted himself with such piety and judgment, that he was canonized after death.

Dunkirk or Dune-kirk, according to tradition, receives its name from the kirk or church built by St. Eloi on the dunes or hills.

## LITERATURE IN FRANCE PRIOR TO THE REIGN OF CHARLEMAGNE.

The darkest periods of literature in France were those which preceded and followed the reign of Charlemagne. Latin was universally employed for all literary purposes, not so much from choice, as from necessity; for what we now term French was not then formed into a language.

In the former of these two dark periods there were but three names which stand out with any degree of prominence, Gregory of Tours, Frédégaire, and Avitus.

**Gregory** (539—595) bishop of Tours, has left us one of the most valuable relics of antiquity, an *Ecclesiastical History* from the death of St. Martin in 397 to the close of the fifth century.

There is no art or method in this work, which is simply jottings of what the author saw or was told. The Latin is barbarous, the style harsh and undignified, the narrative crowded with “lying wonders,” yet is it both amusing and instructive; and shews a fine imagination, and most accurate knowledge of human nature.

**Frédégaire** (592—660) continued, in his fifth book, the history of Gregory; but the continuation is in every respect inferior to the first part: nevertheless it fills up a gap which no other author supplies. His first four books are worthless chronicles beginning with creation.

**St. Avitus** (460—525) was the most distinguished poet from the sixth to the 8th century. His poems (in Latin hexameters) called *The Creation*, *The Fall*, and *The Expulsion from Paradise*, resemble in many points our own “Paradise Lost.”

His description of Paradise (Bk. 1) will bear comparison with Milton's. His Satan (Bk. 2), like Milton's, is a fallen spirit of light, and not a hideous deformity. Both paint in similar outline the Tempter entering Paradise, and seeing Adam and Eve for the first time. Many other parallelisms are no less striking.

## CARLOVINGIAN DYNASTY.

FROM 752 TO 987.

PEPIN LE BREF (*the Short*).

REIGNED 16 YEARS. FROM 752 TO 768. *Contemporary with the Heptarchy.*

When Pépin found himself sole governor of France, he proposed to the pope this question: “If one person has the title but not the power, and another the power but not the title, which ought to be the king?”

Zachary replied, "Whoever has the power ought to have the title also;" whereupon Pépin deposed the puppet monarch, and being raised upon a buckler, boldly announced himself the future sovereign.

As his usurpation had been sanctioned by the pope, he determined to give it all the colour possible; and therefore induced Boniface, the pope's legate, to anoint him to the office, after the manner of the Jews.

This was done by pouring oil upon his head from a phial which Pépin gave out to have been sent from heaven for the baptism of Clovis. This phial has ever since been most religiously preserved; and has been employed at the coronation of all the kings of France.

Soon after the accession of Pépin, Stephen III. was chosen to the Papal chair, and forthwith entered into a violent contest with Astolfo, king of the Lombards, about *image* worship. The subject of dispute was, whether images ought or ought not to be admitted into churches. The pope was decidedly in favour of their admission, maintaining that they aided devotion, especially amongst an ignorant and illiterate people.

The Lombards, on the other hand, were strenuously opposed to their use, which they thought savoured of idolatry; and because they destroyed them in all their churches, were nick-named *Image-breakers*.

Stephen had recourse to Pépin for aid; and Pépin availed himself of this opportunity to get himself solemnly crowned by his holiness, in the cathedral of St. Denis [*San-Dneé*].

The ceremony being over, he marched against Astolfo; defeated him; and made him surrender to the church of Rome all that valuable territory now called Romagna, thus making the papacy a temporal sovereignty.

Besides this contest with the Lombards, Pépin maintained many other wars, some of which were both long and bloody:

He was successful against the Saxons; deposed the duke of Aquitaine, whose dominion he added to his own; and drove the Saracens from Languedoc and Narbonne.

¶ Pépin, being very short of stature, was nick-named *le Bref*; but his courage was indisputable, and his strength prodigious.

On one occasion, being present in the amphitheatre when a lion was pitted against a bull, he cried aloud to the spectators, "The combatants are unequal, who will separate them?"

As no one volunteered, he jumped into the arena; cleft the lion's skull with an axe, and then cut off the bull's head with his sword at a single blow.

"There!" said he, turning to the spectators, "you call me *le Bref* in derision, but am I not as worthy of being your king, as the tallest man among you?"

Pépin ruled with great firmness and moderation for 16 years; and died of dropsy in the 58rd year of his age, leaving his kingdom between his two sons Carloman and Charles.

Carloman survived him only a few months, and the monarchy of France was again united under one sovereign, Charles, subsequently called the Great.

The pontifical power made a prodigious stride in this reign. Pépin not only endowed the pope with a temporal dominion, but also recognized in him the right of disposing of the crowns of the earth; and from this time the Roman pontiffs arrogated to themselves a lordship over temporal sovereigns. They claimed the right of dictating who was and who was not to reign, and kings were considered their royal vassals, who owed them homage and obedience. This political assumption met with great resistance; and was the cause of infinite bloodshed and mischief.

### CHARLEMAGNE.

KING OF THE FRANKS 46 YEARS. FROM 768 TO 814.  
EMPEROR OF THE WEST 14 YEARS. FROM 800 TO 814.

*Empire.* All France, except Brittany; all Italy, except Naples; Germany from the Rhine to the Oder and the banks of the Baltic; Navarre and Catalōnia, in Spain; Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and Corsica; the principal part of Austria and Prussia; and a part of European Turkey.

*Married* thrice. First, a daughter of Desiderius, king of the Lombards, whom he divorced, because she had no children. Next Hildegarde, daughter of Godfrey, duke of Suabia. Lasty, Fastrade.

*Issue*, by Hildegarde, three sons and three daughters, viz., Charles, Pépin, and Louis; Rotrude, Bertha, and Gisle. By Fastrade two daughters. By concubines, four sons and two daughters. In all 14 children.

*Chief Residences*, Aix-la-Chapelle and Ingelheim.

*Language of the Court*, German.

*History of the Reign*, by Eginhard, his secretary; and in French, by Gaillard.

The reign of Charlemagne is a very important epoch, inasmuch as it forms a connecting link between ancient and modern history; and marks the period when learning and the arts were introduced into France.

The French are universally proud of this monarch, and not without reason, as only four sovereigns ever existed in Europe to be compared with him: Alexander the Great, Julius Cæsar, Alfred the Great, and the first Napoléon.

He was mild in temper, courteous in manners, gay and kind in disposition, just and liberal, vigilant and laborious, self-denying and magnanimous; abstemious in diet, simple in dress, averse to luxury, a despiser of flattery, and without one spark of vanity; extremely charitable, a great cultivator of the arts, and a noble patron of learned men.

In appearance he was dignified and manly. His head was round; his eyes large and clear; his nose prominent and straight, rising a little in the middle; his hair brown; his beard and moustaches long and flowing; his cheeks fresh-coloured; his neck short and thick; his stature seven of his own feet. He was so strong he could

straighten three horse-shoes at once; and so well proportioned that his gigantic height was not perceptible when he stood alone.

This truly great man must be noticed under three characters: That of a warrior; that of a legislator; and that of an enlightened patron of literature and the arts.

#### CHARLEMAGNE CONSIDERED AS A WARRIOR.

As a warrior, Charlemagne may be considered one of the most successful that ever lived. When he ascended the throne, his kingdom was extremely limited; but ere he died, it embraced a very large part of Europe, stretching from the Eider and the German Ocean to the Ebro and the Mediterranean, and from the Atlantic to the Baltic.

His expeditions were 18 against the Saxons; 5 against the Lombards; 7 against the Arabs in Spain; 4 against the Avars; and 19 others of less importance.

**With the Saxons (772—803).** The larger part of his reign was interrupted by revolts, attacks, or invasions of the Saxons, a considerable race divided into a vast number of petty republics, all of which were pagan.

Charlemagne undertook to compel them to abandon idolatry and embrace the Roman catholic faith; but for 30 years the crusade was carried on with very indifferent success. When one republic succumbed, another rose in arms; truce after truce was made and broken; defeat after defeat was followed by revolt; but at length, all the republics were subjugated, and the Saxons consented to be baptized.

**Kingdom of Lombardy Destroyed (774).** While the Saxon war was still going on, Charlemagne, at the request of the pope, marched into Lombardy, put an end to that kingdom which had lasted above two centuries, and added it to his own.

The cause of contention was this: Charlemagne had married a daughter of Desiderius, King of the Lombards; but sent her back to her father, because she had no family. Whereupon, Desiderius complained to the pope; but obtaining no redress, fell upon the papal territory and laid it waste.

Pope Adrian I. informed Charlemagne of this outrage; and the Great Charles instantly marched into Lombardy; overthrew Desiderius in the battle of Pavi'a; and confined him for the rest of his life in the monastery of Corbie, in France.

At Milan, Charlemagne was crowned by pope Adrian with the iron crown of the Lombards; and from Milan he marched through Italy, subjecting to himself the whole peninsula, except that part which is called Naples.



The *iron crown* is so called from a narrow band of iron within it, said to be beaten out of one of the nails used at the crucifixion of our Lord. This band is about three-eighths of an inch broad, and one-tenth of an inch in thickness. According to tradition, the nail was first given to Constantine by his mother, who discovered the cross.

N.B. The outer circlet of the Lombard crown is of beaten gold, and set with precious stones. This ancient crown is still preserved with great care at Monza, near Milan; and Napoléon the Great, like his predecessor Charlemagne, was crowned with it.

**Battle of Roncevalles** [*Rōnce-cē-vall*] (778). Charlemagne's next expedition was in Spain; but in order to understand it, we must subjoin a brief outline of the history of that country at the period.

Some 30 years before the birth of Charlemagne, a large part of Spain had been conquered by the Saracens or Arabs, who had overthrown Roderic, the Gothic king, in the battle of Xerès (710).

Forty years later, Aboul-Abbas established in Arabia a new dynasty, by putting to death the reigning caliph and all his race except Abd-el-Ramah, who effected his escape to Africa.

Abd-el-Ramah was not the man to remain inactive. He soon opened a correspondence with the disaffected princes of Spain; organized an insurrection against the Abbaside governor; and proclaimed himself *Caliph of the West* (756).

Several attempts were made to dislodge him; but he triumphed over all opposition; and city after city fell into his hands.

While the struggle was going on, some of the Spanish sheiks, in the Abbaside interest, craved the aid of Charlemagne, who immediately crossed the Pyrenees, and made himself master of all the north of Spain as far as the Ebro.

On his return to Gaul, his rear-guard was attacked in the defile of Roncevalles by a mixed army of Saracens and natives, who rolled down upon it blocks of stone, fragments of rocks, and trunks of trees.

The disaster was complete. The whole rear-guard was annihilated, and all the baggage carried off. Among the slain was Roland, the famous paladin, the king's nephew.

The battle of Roncevalles [*Rōnce-cē-vall*] has been greatly embellished by the poets. It was made popular in the 11th century in the *Chronicles of Archbp. Turpin*, an historical romance having Charlemagne for the hero, and full of marvels, such as enchanted castles, winged horses, magical horns, incantations, and so on.

Orlando or Roland, prefect of Brittany, is one of the most celebrated heroes of romance. His adventures are related by Théroulde in the *Chanson de Roland*. He is the hero of Boiardo's epic poem *Orlando Inamorato*; and of Ariosto's *Orlando Furioso*.

**Kingdom of the Avars Destroyed** (788—796). The next event of importance was the revolt of the Bavarians, who called in the aid of the Avars, a part of the Huns. The Bavarians were defeated, and their territory added to the kingdom of the conqueror.

Charlemagne then resolved to punish the Avars, who intrenched themselves in the marshes of Hungary. After a disastrous struggle of 8 years, he wholly exterminated the race, and took possession of their fortified camps, called *Rings*.



These "rings" were depositories of plunder, and had been so for two centuries; and as the Avars were great robbers, their accumulated plunder was enormous.

After this victory Charlemagne transferred his habitual residence to Aix-la-Chapelle, which he made the capital of his vast empire.

Aix-la-Chapelle was previously called *Aquæ Granni*, but "la chapelle" was substituted from a chapel built there by Charlemagne to the virgin. Aix, a corruption of *Aquæ* (waters), has reference to its hot springs.

**Charlemagne made Emperor (800).** On the death of Adrian I., Leo III. was elected Pope; but two of his competitors formed a conspiracy to murder him. Leo made his escape, and threw himself under the protection of Charlemagne, who received him with great respect, and restored him to the papal chair.

In return for this service, Leo conferred upon his benefactor the title of *Augustus*, and crowned him Emperor of the West.

Charlemagne now looked upon himself as the rightful successor of the Roman emperors; and contemplated the union of the newly revived empire of the West with that of the East, by allying himself in marriage with Irène the empress of Constantinople. The project, however, came to nought; for while the treaty was still pending, Irène was dethroned, and driven into exile, where she died.

#### CHARLEMAGNE AS A LEGISLATOR.

The exploits and conquests of this great monarch are by no means his only titles to admiration and respect. That which raises him above all the sovereigns of his age is the wisdom of his legislation, whereby he substituted order for anarchy; and bound together as one people, a multitude of races differing in origin, language, manners, customs, and religion.

Twice a year he convoked a kind of parliament or national assembly, consisting of bishops, abbots, and lay representatives, to remedy abuses, and deliberate upon his laws, called *Capitularies*.

Capitularies, from the Latin *capitulum* a chapter. The laws of the Frankish kings are so called, because they are subdivided into *chapters* or sections.

In order to make his laws respected, he divided his whole empire into districts, confiding the authority of each district to three or four magistrates or envoys, who were expected to report to him every thing of moment. And such was his diligence, that he made it his business to become acquainted with every political movement of his whole empire.

A curious kind of ordeal was instituted in this reign, called "The Judgment of the Cross," which consisted in this: The plaintiff and defendant of a suit were required to cross their arms upon their breast, and he who could hold them thus the longer gained the suit.

In this reign was also introduced the plan of telling fortunes by opening a book containing the *four evangelists and the psalms*. The book was opened at random, and

the finger laid promiscuously upon a passage, which was supposed to be prophetic. In the reign of Clovis the *Acts of the Apostles* were employed for a similar purpose. The Greeks used the Epics of *Homer*, and the Romans the *Æneid* of *Virgil* for a similar purpose.

#### CHARLEMAGNE AS A PATRON OF LITERATURE.

Charlemagne, fully aware that education is the best method of civilizing a people, used all his endeavours to introduce among his subjects a taste for literature and the fine arts; in which commendable labour he was aided by Alcuin, a native of York, and disciple of the Venerable Bede. He first established in his own family, a *Schōla Palatīna*, which accompanied the court, wherever it went, and was attended by himself, his eight sons and daughters, and the high officers of the realm.

Others were planted in various parts of his dominions. That in St. Martin's Abbey in Tours, was after the model of the school at York. This was Alcuin's favourite foundation, and it was here he delivered his lectures after his retirement from court.

Besides his attention to schools, Alcuin spent no little of his time in correcting manuscripts and writing elementary works.

The Greek and Latin manuscripts had become so mutilated, deranged, and corrupted by ignorant transcribers, as to be almost unintelligible. Alcuin undertook to correct the spelling, rectify the bad grammar, arrange what was misplaced, and restore what was missing.

As soon as a manuscript was completed, copies of it were transmitted to the different schools and monasteries; and transcribing manuscripts became the most fashionable occupation of the day, in which even the royal princesses took an active part and lively interest.

Many new sciences were introduced into France at this period. Prior to the reign of Charlemagne almost the only literature of the continent consisted of sermons, legends, and morals. Alcuin introduced rhetoric, grammar, jurisprudence, astronomy, natural history, chronology, mathematics, poetry, and scripture comments. His elementary treatises on philosophy, rhetoric, philology, grammar, and mathematics are still extant.

¶ He also took a deep interest in the great controversy of the day about images; and advised the king to submit the question to the bishops of the Wests. The result of this advice was the publication of the famous *Carōlin Books*, in which the practice is condemned.

Enriched by many abbeys and princely favours, Alcuin died about ten years before his royal patron (726—804).

807. Haroun-al-Raschid, whose adventures form a part of the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments," sent Charlemagne a curious clock. It had 12 doors, to correspond

to the 12 hours. At each door stood an armed sentinel, to hold it open till the corresponding hour arrived, when the figure struck on a metal bell the proper number of strokes, retired, and shut the door till 12 o'clock, when every door was again thrown open.

808. The custom of reckoning dates from the Christian era was generally adopted in the empire of the Great Charles. An alteration in the calendar was also made at the same time. The Franks had previously been accustomed to begin their year on the 1st of March, the day of their *Champ-de-Mars* or National Assembly; but henceforth for many centuries, the first day of the new year was Christmas-day; and it was not till the 16th century that it was shifted to the 1st of January.

#### THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE, A.D. 814.

Domestic griefs embittered the latter years of this great monarch. He had to blush for the misconduct of some of his daughters, and weep for the death of his favourite sons.

He had made his eldest son, Charles, regent of France and Germany; had given to Pépin, his second son, the regency of Italy; and Louis he had appointed governor of Aquitaine, Gascony, and the Spanish Marches.\*

His intention was, at death, to leave them independent sovereigns over these governments; but his design was frustrated by the death of Charles and Pépin within a few months of each other.

Grief made great inroads upon his health; he lapsed into a state of melancholy; and spent his time in devotion and acts of charity.

At length his debility was so great that he was unable to take any nourishment but water; and he died uttering the words of Stephen the first martyr, "Lord, into thy hands I commend my spirit."

He was 72 years old and had reigned 46 years. He was buried at St. Mary's, the church which he had himself founded at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the model of those in Lombardy.

He was interred in his imperial robes with his sword and shield, sceptre and crown, bible and pilgrim's scrip, all of which were stolen when his body was exhumed by Otho III. (1001); and all that now marks the spot of his remains is the simple inscription of CAROLO MAGNO on the pavement which covers his vault.

\* The Spanish Marches from the Pyrenees to the Ebro. The boundaries between England and Wales, as well as those between England and Scotland, are called *marches*, from the Saxon *mearc* a line or boundary. In Scotland, the limits between two contiguous estates are termed *marches*; and what we call "beating the bounds" is called "Riding the Marches." The title of *marquis* is derived from the *march* over which he once presided, and the spelling has been preserved in the word *marchioness*.

#### DOMESTIC HABITS OF CHARLEMAGNE.

**His Dress.** Charlemagne had no vanity of dress, though his courtiers were extremely vain and extravagant. His clothes were made in the plainest fashion; and, except on state occasions, differed very little from those worn by the common people.

At one time he wore a long flowing robe; but finding it inconvenient, adopted a short one. His under dress was of linen; and his waistcoat or tunic was edged with silk.



His trousers, which reached to his ankles, fitted quite tight to the legs. In winter he wore over his shoulders a garment of otter skin covered with the fur.

On one occasion in a hunt, the day was suddenly overcast, and the rain came down in torrents. His courtiers were soon drenched to the skin, and their fine furs and silks utterly spoiled. The king took this opportunity of rebuking them for their vanity in dress, and advised them in future to wear garments more simple and serviceable.

**His Diet.** He was not only simple in dress, but abstemious at table also, seldom having, even at dinner, more than three or four dishes placed before him. He preferred roast meat to boiled; and it was customary for one of his huntsmen to bring it up to him on the spit.

**His Literary Taste.** While the company dined, some one read aloud to him. His favourite books were the works of St. Augustine and the *History of the Jews* by Josëphus.

He liked much to have learned men about him; and made some progress himself in several branches of literature; but his fingers were so awkward and stiff that he could never learn to write, though he took infinite pains about it.

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#### CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF CHARLEMAGNE.

**Eginhard** (767—839), a German by birth, was one of Charlemagne's private secretaries, recommended to the post by Alcuin. He enjoyed the full confidence of his patron; superintended the public buildings; and, at the death of the great king, was charged with the education of his grandson Lothaire.

Two years afterwards he retired from court to a monastery, where he employed himself on his two great works, *The History of Charlemagne*, and the *Annals of the Franks*. The former of these is extremely interesting, as it enters into the minutest details; and makes us acquainted with the personal appearance, domestic habits, dress, and even diet of the great king.

The greatest of all the chroniclers who wrote in Latin are Eginhard, the *German*; Paolo Warnefrid and Luitprand, *Italians*; Bede and Alcuin, *Englishmen*. These truly great men do not belong to modern literature, but were rather the last monuments of civilized antiquity.

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#### REFLECTIONS ON THE REIGN OF CHARLEMAGNE.

The great scheme projected by Charlemagne was to make his kingdom a second Roman empire; and had he been succeeded by men equal to himself this would probably have been effected. As it was, he blazed awhile as a comet, and passed away; leaving behind him little more than the remembrance of his glorious career.

A host of half-savages may be kept in subjection by a strong hand, and the prestige of a great name; but it requires many ages to change their general ignorance into knowledge, to cement them into society, and plant among them a love for commerce and the liberal arts.

The utmost that Charlemagne effected was to give one man here and there a taste for civilized life; but the great mass of the people remained pretty much as he found them.

He himself foresaw with grief the decline of his empire. At the close of his reign a new race of invaders from Scandināvia appeared; and though they were held at bay for awhile, he felt assured that they would break out as a flood, when he was gathered to his fathers.

Thus Charlemagne stands forth, in the dark ages of European history, a solitary hero between two long periods of turbulence and ignominy.

### SUCCESSORS OF CHARLEMAGNE.

FROM 814 TO 987.

- 814—840. LOUIS I., the Meek (*le Débonnaire*).
- 840—877. CHARLES II., the Bald (*le Chauve*).
- 877—880. LOUIS II., the Stammerer (*le Bègue*).
- 880—884. LOUIS III. and CARLOMAN.
- 884—888. CHARLES the Corpulent (*le Gros*), Regent.
- 888—898. Eudes or Odo, Comte de Paris.
- 898—923. CHARLES III., the Simple (*le Simple*).
- 923—936. RAOUL, duc de Bourgogne.
- 936—954. LOUIS IV., D'Outre-mer (*from over sea*).
- 954—986. LOTHAIRE.
- 986—987. LOUIS V., the Good-for-Nothing (*le Fainéant*).

*The word Louis is merely Chlotwig softened first into Clovis and then into Lovis or Louis. Similarly, Lothaire is Clothaire without the initial C.*

The nine descendants of Charlemagne were utterly worthless. Never was there a race of weaker and more despicable kings. Very soon after his death the germs of dissolution made their appearance in his vast empire; and within 120 years, all that remained of it to his representatives in France were the three cities of Laon [*Lar'n*], Reims [*Rah'nce*], and Compiègne [*Côn-pě-enn*]. The rest had passed into the hands of powerful nobles, nominally crown vassals, but in reality independent princes.

Louis I., le Débonnaire (814—840), son and successor of Charlemagne, was the best of the race; but wholly unfit to succeed so great a monarch as his father. He was a good scholar as the times went, a wise legislator, a pious man, and really desirous of governing well; but he was so weak-minded and irresolute, that he was domineered over by his sons; and allowed the feudal power to increase to a very dangerous extent.

His reign presents a continual scene of discord between himself and the children of his first wife, by whom he was twice deposed and taken prisoner.

Charles I., le Chauve (840—877), the son of his old age, by his second wife, succeeded; but his two step-brothers levied troops in their own provinces, and made fierce war upon each other and the king.

After a time, a new partition of the empire was agreed upon: Charles took France, Lothaire Italy, and Louis Germany.

Scarcely were these family feuds settled, when the Normans in the North, and the Saracens in the South, made dreadful havoc; subjecting everything to fire and sword.



These constant disturbances brought on the most fatal consequences: The lands lay uncultivated, and famine destroyed more than the sword. Wolves descended in troops from the mountains, and lurked fearlessly even in the great cities.

Charles, the Bald, reigned 37 years; and died at last of poison, in a way-side hut, in the village of Mt. Cenis [*Mone Say'-nee*].

**Charles, le Gros** (884—888). The three next kings have not left a single trace in history beyond their names. Passing them by, we come to Charles the Corpulent, son of Louis the German, and godson of Louis the Débonnaire, a thoroughly worthless prince, noted only for his weakness and misfortunes.

The Northmen braved him in his capital, which they would certainly have taken, had it not been for the valour of Eudes [*Ude*] and Robert, sons of the comte d'Anjou.

At last a universal cry of indignation rose against him. He was ignominiously deposed, and died the same year deserted by every one.

At his death, Germany and Italy were wholly severed from France; Burgundy, Lorraine, and Gascony, like Brittany and Aquitaine, were raised to independence; and the kingdom of France was limited to that narrow territory which stretches between the Loire [*Lwor*] and the Seine [*Sain*].

**Eudes**, comte de Paris (888—898), was next raised upon the buckler in reward of his brave defence of the capital. With this appointment began a long series of civil wars, which terminated, after a century, with the total exclusion of the Carlovingian race.

**Charles the Simple** (898—923) was next allowed to wear the crown of his father Louis, but was wholly governed by favourites; and after an inglorious reign of 25 years, was poisoned by the comte de Vermandois [*Vair-marn-dwor*].

His name would have been unworthy of record except for one incident, the cession of a large cantle in the north of France to Rollo, the Norman [i. e. Norwegian] chief.

This bold adventurer caused such terror by his appearance, that Charles was glad to purchase peace by granting him all that extensive territory since known as Normandy; and by giving him his daughter in marriage.

Rollo divided his dukedom into fiefs; governed it vigorously and well; and made it one of the strongest bulwarks of France against invaders.

¶ The next two kings were mere puppets in the hands of Hugues [*You*], surnamed the Great, duke of France, count of Paris and Anjou, and abbot of St. Denis, St. Germain-des-Près, and St. Martin de Tours, a nobleman far more powerful than the king, his suzerain.

The crown was offered him on the death of Charles, but he declined the empty honour, and placed his brother-in-law **Raoul** [*Rah'-ool*] upon the throne.

Raoul reigned somewhat more than 12 years, when Hugues recalled from England **Louis IV.**, surnamed the Foreigner (*d'outre-mer*), to bear the pageant sceptre. The young exile returned, but tried to shake off his powerful vassal, and made him his enemy for life. A war broke out between them, in which the king was taken prisoner. He was confined for two years in the castle of Rouen (*Roo-on'g*), and then restored to the throne, but never enjoyed any real power.

At the death of Louis IV., his son **Lothaire** was allowed to call himself king; and two years afterwards the great duke died. He was called the *Great* from his gigantic stature, the *White* from his pallid countenance, and the *Abbot* from the several abbeys which he held.

¶ His second son Hugues-Capet [*You-Cappay*], succeeded to his several titles, and exercised similar power. He suffered Lothaire to continue the name of king, and even placed his son **Louis V.** upon the throne at his decease; but at the end of 14 months, the young man was poisoned by his wife, and Hugues-Capet was chosen to found a new dynasty.

#### STATE OF THE PEOPLE IN THE CARLOVINGIAN DYNASTY.

The era between the death of Charlemagne and the close of the Carolingian dynasty, has been called the *iron* age from its constant civil wars, the *lead*en age for its worthlessness, and the *dark* age for its barrenness of learned men. It was, without doubt, the very worst and gloomiest in the whole history of France.

Even under the great king himself the free proprietors were harassed with endless expeditions; and many became ecclesiastics to avoid the military conscription. Bad as this was, the lax government of his successors was infinitely worse; as the nobles, held no longer in subjection, became most merciless despots.

Rebellion was endless. The haughty and ambitious barons thoroughly despised the weak and powerless monarchs. And all France was exhausted by anarchy and spoliation.

For the last century of this dynasty almost every province had its own ruler, who was either a king, duke, or count. Thus the ruler of Burgundy styled himself a *king*, like the ruler of France; the rulers of Aquitaine, Normandy, and Brittany, *dukes*; and those of Champagne, Flanders, and Toulouse, *counts*. But whatever their title, their authority was supreme.

Under this crowd of masters, all mutually jealous of each other, and continually at war, the people suffered most severely, and were thoroughly enslaved. Strong castles were built throughout the entire length and breadth of the land; and thither the strong plunderer, after he had fallen upon his spoil, retired, to defy the arm of justice, and the end of private vengeance.

Crops were foraged as soon as grown. The free proprietors of land were compelled, in self-defence, to place themselves under the protection of some lord, and submit their freeholds to the feudal tenures.

¶ This universal insubordination, and these ceaseless civil wars, exhausted the best blood of the land; and foreign invaders were not slack in availing themselves of this national weakness:

In the first place, the southern coast, bordering on Spain, was kept in constant alarm by the Saracens. More formidable still were the Selavonians, a people from the Euxine sea, whose numbers were like the sands on the sea-shore for multitude. They fought with light cavalry and light armour, trusting to their arrows, against which the swords and lances of the European Armies could avail nothing.

All Italy, Germany, and the south of France accessible from the coast, suffered from this terrible horde. Languedoc was over-run by them, and Toulouse laid utterly desolate.

¶ If any enemy could possibly be worse, the pirates of the North, called Norse or Northmen, were more formidable still. Even in the time of Charlemagne they made their appearance in France; but in the reign of his successor, their depredations became most serious; and in that of Charles the Bald, they penetrated to the very heart of the nation.

They always adopted one uniform plan of operation both in England and France: Sailing up the navigable rivers, they fortified such islands as they met with, and made them asylums for their women, children, and disabled soldiers. Here, too, were the repositories of their plunder; and thither they retreated when danger threatened them.

Being unchecked by religious awe, the rich monasteries, which had stood unharmed by the civil spoilers, were mercilessly plundered by them, and not unfrequently burnt to the ground. Manuscripts of great value, treasures, relics, and the tombs of saints, became equally a prey; and nothing escaped their devastation.

These perpetual invasions brought not only direct ruin on many rich houses, but even those that escaped the hands of the spoiler were ruined by the exorbitant contributions levied upon them for the public service. So that, what with spoliations, and what with contributions, all the great religious houses of France were either destroyed, or reduced to pauperism in these disastrous times.

So poor, so wholly without money or credit, was the nation become, that Charles the Bald found the greatest difficulty in collecting 3000 pounds weight of silver to subsidize a body of Normans to act against their ferocious countrymen.

Of course commerce could not be carried on in a state so disorganized as this. The cities were abandoned; and the industrious class of merchants ceased to exist.

The only tradesmen were pedlars, who hawked about their wares from castle to castle, or visited the numerous huts that crowded for protection round the houses of the great.

The misery and desolation of the period are wholly beyond description; and the nation would certainly have lapsed into utter barbarism, had not a new dynasty succeeded to the throne.

## CAPETIAN DYNASTY.

HUGUES surnamed CAPET.

REIGNED 9 YEARS. FROM 987 TO 996. *Contemporary with Etheldred II.*

*Kingdom.* The royal dominions consisted of Laon, Reims, and Compiègne, to which Hugues Capet added the Duchy of France, that is, the county of Paris and the Orléanais.

What we now call France was at this time divided into 61 Fiefs; some of which were nominally attached to the crown. The principal were the duchies of Guyenne, Normandy,



and Brittany, and the counties of Toulouse, Roussillon, Auvergne, Champagne, Vermandois, Anjou, and Flanders.

*Married* Adélaïde, daughter of Guillaume Tête d'Étoupes, duc de Guyenne.

*Issue*, Robert, who succeeded him.

*Residence*. Palais de Justice in the Ile de Paris.

Hugues-Capet [*You-Cappay*], son of Hugues-le-Grand, was elevated to the throne by the nobles, to the prejudice of Charles, duc de Lorraine, the only surviving prince of the Carolingian dynasty.

Charles took up arms to vindicate his right, and his cause was espoused by several of the barons; but, being betrayed to his rival by the bishop of Laon [*Lar'n*], he was shut up in prison till his death.

Neither Hugues-Capet nor any of his three immediate successors exercised any material influence over the age; nor did they increase either the dignity or authority of the royal office. They were not kings in the common acceptation of the word, but simply chiefs or masters of a kind of league formed by seven great nobles.

Their superiority was purely official, like that of "sovereign," in an order of knighthood, or president in a board of gentlemen; and even this very questionable rank was conceded to them only by those who belonged to the confederation.

Thus when Adelbert assumed the title of *Comte de Poitiers*, and Hugues-Capet demanded of him, Who made him a count? the haughty baron insolently replied, "And who, pray, made you a king?"

¶ Hugues-Capet was never crowned, nor was he invested with any of the insignia of royalty. In public he appeared in an abbot's cope, a costume he was entitled to wear as abbot of St. Martin-de-Tours.

This office his father held before him; not that he had ever been an ecclesiastic, but that to him belonged the lands and seignories of that rich monastery.

It was from his clerical costume that Hugues was called *cappëtus* (clothed with a capot or monk's hood). He fixed his residence at Paris, which has ever since continued the seat of government; and died after a reign of 9 years, leaving his dominions to his son Robert, who had been associated with him in the regency, for nearly two years.

#### EFFECTS PRODUCED BY THE CHANGE OF DYNASTY.

The principal benefits derived from the change of dynasty were the recognition by the crown of the feudal law of primogeniture, and the withdrawal of France from Germanic influence.

During the two previous dynasties no uniform system of succession had been established; legitimate and other sons were all alike admitted to a share of the empire; and the fatal custom of dividing the kingdom between all the brothers weakened the crown, and engendered perpetual strife.

Upon the elevation of Hugues-Capet [*You-Cappay*], the feudal system was fully established; and the right of primogeniture confined the succession to the eldest son born in lawful wedlock. Consequently, the family feuds of the previous dynasties were no longer perpetuated; and the kingdom received accessions, but was never again dismembered.

In speaking of the *kingdom of France* in the reign of Hugues-Capet and his first three successors, it must be distinctly borne in mind, that only a very small part of the present empire is intended.

France had no *national* history till the reign of Louis VI. in the twelfth century. Its history prior to that date is for the most part that of individuals, or of independent provinces.

¶ The change of dynasty produced no immediate benefit to the people. The accumulated troubles of 200 years of anarchy or misrule were not to be removed by merely changing the ruling family.

Still were the lands uncultivated; still were the cities left desolate; still wolves prowled about the streets; and still the strong were the oppressors of the weak.

Indeed so frightful were the calamities of the nation, that it was a very general opinion that the end of the world was at hand; an opinion greatly strengthened by the ecclesiastics who fixed that event to the year of grace 1000.

## THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

### THE FIRST STEP TOWARDS CIVILIZATION.

The origin of the feudal system is somewhat obscure; probably it was the child of circumstances, and arose from a custom of granting lands for military service, a custom observed by Clovis and all other German chiefs.

Charles-Martel rendered these possessions hereditary and called the possessors *vassals*.

> The *Carlovingian* kings, at all times sacrificing the future to the present, successively abandoned to the nobles the right of levying armies, coining money, making peace and war, fortifying their castles, and administering justice.

By these privileges they were made in reality independent of the crown, though they kept up a show of subserviency by an oath of allegiance.

As the dukes and counts were *vassals* to the *crown*, so they also had vassals under them; for they parcelled their domains into inferior benefices upon similar conditions to their own.

The lands thus held were called *fiefs*, and the person to whom the homage was paid the *liege lord* or *suzerain*.

Tenants under the crown were called *Great Vassals*; and the liegemen of Great vassals, *Vavāsors*.

Of the Great vassals the duke of France was the highest in position; and when Hugues-Capet, as duke of France, was called *king*, the title was abolished in the neighbouring states.

Not that Hugues or his immediate successors had any supreme authority over his great vassals; but simply that his domain was by general consent acknowledged to be the most central and influential.

The principal obligation contracted by the feudal tenure was military service for 40 days in every expedition that the suzerain chose to undertake.

The ancient national courts were abolished for local courts in which the suzerain presided; and judicial combat became the general method of deciding contests among the gentry.



It became a universally-allowed axiom that all Great Vassals were peers or equals in rank ; that all Vavāsors were equal in rank ; and that all inferior people were nothing.

Hence arose the custom of judging by peers. A Great Vassal would not demean himself by fighting with a Vavāsor ; nor would a Vavāsor presume to challenge a liegeman of the crown.

The Great Vassals of France at the accession of Hugues-Capet [*You-Cappay*] were the three dukes of Normandy, Burgundy, and Aquitaine, and the three counts of Flanders, Toulouse, and Champagne.

These were called *Peers of France* ; and to these six lay peers six ecclesiastics were subsequently added\* (1214).

¶ The great majority of the people lived in a servile condition ; and the nation was virtually divided into two classes, the oppressors and the oppressed, the vassals and their slaves, the victimisers and the victims. There was no middle class.

The serfs whose wretched cabins were crowded round the lord's castle were nothing better than human cattle ; the lord might sell them, mutilate them, and even kill them at pleasure. They were attached to the soil like the slaves of an American plantation, and were sold with it as the sheep and oxen. They possessed literally nothing which they could call their own ; neither their huts, their instruments of labour, their time, their earnings, their children, nor even their own bodies.

As the magistrates were the feudal lords themselves, of course there was no appeal or redress. Might was right, and the will of the castle was the people's law.

Wretched as all this may appear to be, the system was nevertheless well adapted to the active, fierce, and predatory people of the times, who were wholly unfitted to be governed by the laws of civilized society.

### ROBERT THE PIOUS (LE PIEUX.)

REIGNED 35 YEARS. FROM 996 TO 1031. *Contemporary with Canute the Great.*

*Married* twice. First Berthe de Bourgogne, a widow ; then Constance d'Arles.

*Issue* by his second wife only. Henri, who died before him ; Eudes, an idiot ; Henri, his successor ; Robert, duc de Bourgogne ; Adélaïde, who married Baldwin IV. of Flanders ; and Adèle, who married Richard III., of Normandy.

Robert, the only son of Hugues-Capet [*You-Cappay*] was 26 years old, when he succeeded to the throne ; but he had been crowned in his father's life-time, in order that the succession might be secured to him.

He was very handsome in person, and of a noble deportment. Mild in temper, grave in manners, and serene. His ruling passion was benevolence, and his sole ambition to be a good christian.

He was by no means defective in understanding, yet was he perpetually doing the most foolish things. His ardent desire was to do what is right, yet was he continually doing what was wrong. As a man he was without reproach, as a king he was most unfitted for the times.

He was very charitable, but his charity was without discretion ; and instead of relieving distress, encouraged idleness and deceit.

\* The six ecclesiastical peers were the two archbishops of Reims and Sens, and the four bishops of Noyon, Langres, Beauvais, and Châlons.

He was very lenient, but his leniency was a sanction to vice. He was very religious, but his religious ceremonies intrenched upon his duties.

He spent most of his time with the monks, assisting them in their services, visiting the sick and needy, joining processions, and making pilgrimages. He composed several hymns; and on grand occasions, used to lead the choir of the cathedral church of St. Denis.

Wherever he went he was dogged by mendicants, who thronged the churches he frequented, filled the palace, and lined the roads through which he passed. In imitation of our Saviour, he not only relieved their wants, but washed their feet, and dressed their sores.

**Excommunicated** (998). With all his piety Robert escaped not the ban of the church; perhaps his very devotion and humility invited its censure.

In his father's life-time, and at the express desire of his father, he had married Berthe [*Bairt*], the widow of Eudes count of Blois, and daughter of Conrad duke of Burgundy. This lady was distantly related to him; but the marriage was one of wise policy, as by this means the dukedom of Burgundy would escheat to the crown. It was also an alliance of mutual affection.

The pope, however, did not wish Burgundy to be joined to the kingdom of France, and therefore commanded Robert to divorce his wife, under pretence that she was his cousin in the fourth degree.

Robert refused to obey; and the pope excommunicated him, and laid his kingdom under an interdict.

While this sentence lasted, no true catholic could eat, drink, pray, or hold communion with him. He could partake of no sacrament; attend no religious service; and if he died, could neither be buried in holy ground, nor with the rites of the church.

The nation being under an interdict was similarly punished. No church was opened; no religious ceremony performed; no bells were rung. The sacred pictures were covered with sackcloth; and the images and relics laid in ashes and thorns.

It so happened, while this sentence was impending, that Berthe was delivered of a still-born child; and the priests told the credulous king it was a judgment from God for his disobedience. He could resist no longer; the divorce was consummated; and Berthe [*Bairt*] retired to a convent, where she died.

Not long afterwards he married Constance, daughter of Guillaume-Taillefer comte de Toulouse; a very imperious, ambitious, and intriguing woman, who put his patience to many a grievous trial.

At the age of 60, he died of a fever, returning from a pilgrimage to some of the most famous shrines of France. He had reigned nearly 35 years; and died regretted and beloved, especially by the poor.

## HENRI I.

REIGNED 29 YEARS. FROM 1031 TO 1061. *Contemporary with Edward the Confessor*

*Married* Anne of Muscovy, daughter of the grand-duke Jaroslaw [*Yar-rö-slov*].  
*Issue.* Philippe who succeeded him, Robert, and Hugues.

N. B. In this reign was instituted the office of Lord High Constable (Connétable), which from this reign to that of Louis XIII. was the highest dignity of the realm. In times of war he was Commander-in-Chief, with absolute power; even the king himself, at such times, was wholly under his command. In peace he was the War Minister, and took precedence of all others. The most illustrious Constables of France were CHATILLON (1250—1329) under Philippe-le-Bel and Louis X.; DU GUESCLIN (1314—1380) under Charles V.; CLISSON, surnamed the *Butcher* (1320—1407), under Charles VI.; BOURBON (1489—1527) under François I.; MONTMORENCY (1493—1567) under Henri II., François II., and Charles IX.; and LESDIGUIERES (1543—1626) under Henri IV. and Louis XIII. The office was abolished in 1627, but was nominally re-established by Napoléon in 1804, in favour of his brother Louis.

Henri I., son and successor of Robert, was a very insignificant prince, who has not left behind him a single incident worth recording.

His title was readily acknowledged by the clergy and great vassals; but his mother endeavoured to excite a revolt against him, for the purpose of placing her youngest son Robert on the throne.

Henri, without attempting any defence, rode off with all speed to Normandy, to crave the assistance of duke Robert, called by some *le diable*, and by others the *Magnificent*.

The powerful duke received him very graciously, and lent him his support; whereby he soon compelled Constance to sue for peace.

The dowager queen now retired to a convent for the rest of her days, and Henri satisfied his brother's ambition by creating him duke of Burgundy.

This Robert, afterwards surnamed *le Vieux*, was the founder of the famous ducal house of Burgundy, which lasted 329 years (1032 to 1361).

Henri I. had very little real power; several of his nobles enjoyed far greater, especially the duke of Normandy, and the counts of Flanders, Toulouse, Anjou, and Blois.

**Famine** (1034). In the early part of this reign occurred a terrible famine, which committed the most frightful ravages.

It was brought about in a great measure by the general belief that the end of the world was at hand; but it was not agreed by ecclesiastics whether that event was to occur 1000 years from the birth, or 1000 years from the *crucifixion* of our Lord.

In consequence of this credulity, much of the land was left uncultivated, and multitudes of laymen became monks; probably the effects would have been still more disastrous but for the doubt referred to.

What added to the calamity was the unusual severity of the season. The cold and rain destroyed the autumnal fruits, and almost all the little corn which had been sown.



The distress was so great, that dead bodies were torn from their graves, travellers were murdered, and children decoyed, to furnish a meal for the starving.

Troops of wolves devastated the country, and boldly entered the towns and cities; and the nobles, more formidable than the famine or the wolves, continued their depredations.

**The Peace of God (1035).** At length the clergy interfered, and commanded all men to lay down their arms under pain of excommunication and the vengeance of heaven. This cessation of civil hostilities was termed the *Peace of God*.

The command, and malediction attached to its infringement, were read from the pulpit every day by the officiating priest after the proper Gospel:

“May they who refuse to obey be accursed, and have their portion with Cain the first murderer, with Judas the arch-traitor, and with Dathan and Abiram who went down alive into the pit. May they be accursed in the life which now is; and may their hope of salvation be put out, as the light of these candles is extinguished from their sight.”

Such was the nature of the curse. At the last words, the priests extinguished their lighted tapers, and the people responded, “So may God extinguish the joy of those who violate this peace, amen.”

**The Truce of God (1040).** In time, the repetition of this curse lost its efficacy, and it was thought expedient to modify the prohibition. The “Peace of God” was therefore repealed, and another injunction, called the *Truce of God*, published in its place.

By this enactment, war was not altogether forbidden, but no military attack was in any case to be made from sun-set on Wednesday till sun-rise the following Monday; nor on any fast or feast day.

It also provided that no man was to molest a labourer working in the fields; and if any one laid hands upon his implements of husbandry, he was excommunicated.

These regulations had a most beneficial influence, and reflect great credit on the clergy of those disastrous times; but the foolish Henri would never give them his support.

¶ Henri I. died after a reign of nearly 30 years, leaving behind him two sons, Philippe and Hugues, the former of whom had been already consecrated.

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#### CELEBRITIES SINCE THE ACCESSION OF HUGUES-CAPET.

**Gerbert, Pope Sylvester II. (930—1003),** was by far the greatest celebrity in France since the accession of Hugues-Capet. He was born at Auvergne [*O-vairn*] of very humble parents; and was taken out of charity into the convent of Aurillac to be educated.

Having outstripped all his contemporaries in his knowledge of the ancient classics, he was sent to the University of Cordôva to study the abstruse sciences; and soon established a European reputation for geometry, astronomy, and mechanics.

On his return to France, Hugues-Capet wished to appoint him archbishop of Reims [*Rah'nce*]; but as the pope refused his sanction, Gerbert quitted Paris, and took service under Otho III. of Germany, who loaded him with honours, and made him archbishop of Ravenna.

Two years afterwards he was elevated to the papal chair; and greatly distinguished himself for wisdom, moderation, and judgment, so much the more conspicuous, as his 25 predecessors (all of whom had been elected in the tenth century) had been men of scandalous reputation.

Sylvester II. enjoyed his high honour only three years; but in that brief period was certainly the foremost man of all the world in wisdom, rank, and talent.

It is said that he introduced into Europe the Arabic figures, and was the inventor of the balance-movement of clocks.

## PHILIPPE I. L'AMOREUX.

REIGNED 48 YEARS. FROM 1061 TO 1108.

*Contemporary with William I., William II., and Henry I.*

*Kingdom* compared with the domains of the chief nobles. The kingdom embraced 5 of the modern departments; the dukedom of Guyenne and Aquitaine 24; the dukedom of Brittany 5; of Normandy 5; of Burgundy 3; the domains of the comte de Poitiers 7; of the comtes de Blois and Champagne 6; of the comte de Flandre 4; of the comte d'Anjou 3; of the comte de Vermandois 2; and of the comte de Boulogne 1.

The emperor of Germany and comte de Toulouse shared the sovereignty of Lorraine, a part of Burgundy, and all Provence, equal to the remaining 21 departments.

*In the reign of Louis VII. the Kings of England held as Grand Vassals of the French crown 39 of the 86 departments.*

1082 Vexin (i.e. Seine-Inferieure and Eure) reverted to the crown.

1100 Berry (i.e. Indre and Cher) was obtained by purchase.

*Married* twice. First Bertha, daughter of the count of Holland. Next Bertrade de Montford. *Issue.* Louis his successor, Henri who died young, and Constantia, by his first wife. By his second, Philippe, Florence, and Cécile.

Philippe I., at the age of 8 years, succeeded his father without opposition, under the guardianship of his uncle Baldwin count of Flanders, who died when the young king was only 15 years of age.

Naturally of a good disposition, all his faculties were absorbed in sensuality and sloth; and his personal beauty was wholly marred, even in the prime of life, by the effects of gluttony.

In the early part of his reign he marched into Flanders, to assist his guardian's grandson against Robert of Friezeland [*Freeze-land*], who disputed the succession; but being wholly unable to cope with so experienced a warrior, was glad to make peace with him.

One of the conditions was that he should marry Bertha, daughter of the count of Holland. Philippe fulfilled his promise, but subsequently divorced her, and eloped with Bertrade, wife of the comte d'Anjou.

The pope now interfered, and threatened to excommunicate him unless he sent back the misguided woman to her husband; and as Philippe was obstinate, put his threat into execution (1092).



For ten years the ban of the church hung over him ; the minds of his subjects were estranged, and revolt followed revolt. At last he succumbed, and was reconciled to the pope ; but not before his influence was so shaken, that it was needful to associate with himself his son Louis on the throne.

¶ In the reign of Philippe I. some of the most stirring events of history took place ; but the weak dotard took no part in any of them ; and almost the only event worth mention is the war which he maintained for 12 years against William the Conqueror of England ; but even this was not marked by any memorable incident.

William corrupted the partisans of the French monarch by offering them fiefs in England ; and Philippe incited the Conqueror's son Robert to rebellion.

After a time, and while William was confined to his bed, Philippe indulged in some coarse pleasantries upon his rival's corpulency ; whereupon, the fiery Norman swore he would set France in a blaze with the number of torches which should commemorate his recovery ; but his sudden death put a stop to his threatened vengeance.

Philippe, relieved of all anxiety by the death of his rival, now gave full swing to his sensuality and folly ; but towards the close of life suffered from qualms of conscience, and laid aside his regal robes for the habits of a monk. In his death-illness he requested that he might not be buried in the abbey of St. Denis [*San Dneé*], as he was "unworthy to lie beside his noble ancestors."

With this reign the sovereignty of France attained its lowest point. The entire dominion of the crown did not cover an area larger than the county of Yorkshire ; but henceforth its power and territory increased with each successive century.

## CHIVALRY.

### THE SECOND STEP TOWARDS CIVILIZATION.

The eleventh century was the most important epoch in the history of France. It was the commencement of a new state of things both in morals and politics.

Towards the close of the first Henri's reign, some nobles, ashamed of being brigands, consecrated their swords to the service of God ; and resolved to employ them in future only in the cause of equity and benevolence.

This was the origin of knight errantry, and of the institution of chivalry, which soon became extremely popular, and spread with amazing rapidity over all the kingdoms of Christendom.

When fully established, almost every youth of high birth was regularly trained to knighthood, by being domesticated from the age of 7 in the castle of some great lord, to serve in the capacity of *page*.

His duty at this tender age was chiefly to attend the ladies. He was taught, from the first, to honour God, reverence women, obey promptly, and respect the Christian religion.

At the age of 14 the page was advanced to the rank of *esquire*, and his duties varied according to the department assigned him: that is whether he was 'squire of the banquet-hall or stables, armour-bearer, or shield-bearer.

The *first* of these had to carve at dinner-time, and distribute the several dishes to the guests. He was dressed in scarlet, wore a chaplet on his head, a girdle round his waist, a horn about his neck, and carried in his hand a white wand.

The *stable 'squire* had to train the horses, see that they were properly cared for, and to help his lord to mount and dismount.

The *armour-bearer* (armiger) had to assist his lord to dress and undress, and to carry his armour when he went upon any expedition of pleasure or war.

The *shield-bearer* (scutifer) had to carry his lord's shield. In the tournament he was armed, and stood within the lists, but without a truncheon or other defensive weapon. It was his duty to hand the sword or truncheon to the knight.

The armiger and scutifer had to mind the knight's armour and attend his wounds, and every knight, when fully equipped was accompanied by these two 'squires. It was by no means universally the case that every knight had 'special 'squires for the banquet hall and stables.

There were regular masters to teach the pages and esquires their respective duties, as well as to dance and sing, play on the harp and lute, hawk and hunt, fish and ride, salute, and in some cases even to read.

Every 'squire was considered a gentleman; and as such, was privileged to bear arms on his shield or escutcheon, which was surmounted by a helmet placed sideways, with the vizor down. He had a sword but no belt; and his spurs were of silver.

At the age of 21 the squire became a belted knight, and changed his silver spurs for gilt or golden ones. He was called *Sir* and his wife *Lady* or *Madam*. He was allowed to carry a lance, to wear mail armour, and to hoist a flag on his castle-keep.

The flag for a simple knight terminated in a point, and was termed a *pennon*; that of a knight banneret had the point cut off, and was termed a *banner*.

¶ If any knight committed an offence not of a capital nature, but simply unworthy his vocation, he was unknighted, by having his gold spurs struck off.

Grave offences were more severely punished: The offending knight was mounted on a platform, his armour was broken to pieces before his face, his shield fastened to the tail of his horse was dragged through the dust, his misdeeds were proclaimed by heralds, and a basin of hot water was poured upon his head. Being thus degraded, he was dragged by a rope from the platform, conveyed to the neighbouring church on a hurdle, covered with a pall, and the funeral service was performed over him, as if he were dead.

### ~~~~~ EFFECTS OF CHIVALRY.

When not in attendance, the young pages and esquires spent their mornings in the court-yard in military sports; and their evenings in music, dancing, or some similar amusement, with the ladies of the castle.

Soon a great improvement was observable in the language, deportment, and tastes of the rising generation. Refinement and elegance were cultivated; and humility, fidelity, and politeness as much affected as bravery, generosity, and truth.

Deeds of chivalry and the glow of love naturally produced a race of poets; intercourse with ladies gave encouragement to the polite arts; trade revived; inventions were encouraged; towns were built; and a middle class arose distinguished for intelligence and wealth.

¶ The *tourney* or *tournament* seems to have sprung up with chivalry, and formed part of the education of knights. The word is French; and indicates that the main art of the game consisted in so manœuvring or *turning* the horse as to avoid the adversary's blow.

In order that one knight might be distinguished from another in these gatherings, it was customary to carry some device upon the banner, shield, and breastplate. The device was either some pun upon the knight's name, some fanciful emblem, or something indicative of his achievements, peculiarity, or desire.

As the device was generally adopted by the knight's family, the custom of *armorial bearings* was introduced; and as the heralds *blazoned* or announced every knight by the device which he bore, the art of describing "arms" was called *blazonry*.

The manufacture of armour, the breeding and training of horses, the working in metals, the equipping of knights, 'squires, and pages, and the costly attire of the castle ladies, gave ample employment to a very large number of operatives.

Domestic servants were greatly multiplied; luxuries were gradually more and more required; and the whole aspect of society underwent an entire change, indicative of prosperity and comfort.

It must not however be denied, that while the law of chivalry breathed nothing but religion, virtue, honour, and humanity, the times were still strongly marked by profligacy, violence, and cruelty.

It was a transition state. Barbarism and heathenism were giving way to civilization and Christian morals; and as soon as the new order of things was established, chivalry ceased to exist.

## THE CRUSADES.

### THE THIRD STEP TOWARDS CIVILIZATION.

In the reign of Philippe I. were set on foot those religious wars between the nations of the West and the Mahometans, which have received the name of Crusades. The first of these was undertaken simply to vindicate the right of Christian pilgrims to visit the Holy Sepulchre; but success enlarged the objects of the crusaders, and they resolved to take all Palestine, and place it under a Christian prince.

In the time of our Lord's sojourn upon earth, Palestine was a Roman province. In the 7th century it fell into the power of the Arabs, a generous people, who respected the religious feelings of others, and allowed the pilgrims to build in Jerusalem a church and hospital.

About the time that England was conquered by the Normans, the Holy Land was taken by the Seljuk Turks, who treated the European merchants and Christian pilgrims with such intolerable insolence, and imposed upon them such barefaced exactions, that a general feeling of indignation burst over the whole of Christendom.

At length Pierre, surnamed the Hermit, a native of Amiens in France, who had himself visited the Holy Land, and witnessed the cruelties complained of, went about preaching every where to immense crowds in the open air. He produced a frenzy of excitement as he described in glowing language how the pilgrims were murdered, robbed, and beaten, the land over-run by spoilers, and the Holy Sepulchre exposed daily to devastation.

Urban II., an able and humane man, took the matter up with great vigour, and a Crusade was definitely resolved upon. "God wills it" (*Deus vult*)! cried the Council. "God wills it!" shouted the people, as the resolve of the Council was announced to them. And the pope accepted the expression "God wills it!" as the war-cry of the host.



From all parts of Europe thousands upon thousands hurried to the standard of the cross. Never was war so popular. In addition to its usual incentives were added "plenary indulgence" from the pope, the notion that it was "doing God's service," and the full persuasion that it would purchase a good reward in the world to come.

The expedition was to start on the 15th of August (1096); but the impatience of the people could not brook the delay. In the spring, above a million of men, women, and children were on their way to Palestine; 20,000 put themselves under the conduct of Walter the Penniless; 40,000 more enlisted under the Hermit; 15,000 Germans marched under a priest named Gottschalk; and a horde of 200,000 vagabonds, chiefly from France, started without any leader. All these several hosts perished before they reached the Holy Land; some by famine; some by fever; and others by the sword.

At the time appointed, six well-organized armies, officered by men of rank and renown, were ready to start. Their leaders were Godfrey of Bouillon [*Boo-ë-yōn'g*], Hugues count of Vermandois, Robert Curthose of Normandy, count Robert of Flanders, count Raymond of Toulouse, and the prince of Tarentum. Each of these leaders chose his own route, but Constantinople was appointed the place of *rendezvous*.

Their first success was the capture of Nice in Bithynia. They next laid siege to Antioch, which was carried in 7 months, and all the inhabitants put to the sword. On the 15th of July, after a siege of somewhat less than six weeks, Jerusalem was taken, and the grand object of the expedition fully accomplished.

Their treatment of the conquered was merciless in the extreme; but their delusion was sincere. Bareheaded and barefooted marched the victorious army to Calvary, to kiss the stone where the cross of the Prince of Peace was said to have been planted. Reeking with blood, revelling in vengeance, and stained with a thousand wrongs, they bent like penitents, and believed themselves the beloved of God.

Eight days after the victory they offered with unanimous consent to create Godfrey King of Jerusalem: but he would only accept the title of *Baron of the Holy Sepulchre*, saying it would be presumptuous in him "to wear a crown of gold, where his Lord and Master had only a crown of thorns."

The new baronry soon equalled in extent the ancient kingdom of David. The laws, language, and feudal customs of the Franks were introduced; and two orders of religious knighthood founded, the Hospitallers of St. John and the Templars.

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## EFFECTS OF THE CRUSADES.

Though the object and conduct of the seven Crusades have been universally condemned, their influence on Europe was highly beneficial.

(1) Many a knight who assumed the cross sold for ready money his castle, lands, and cattle. These were bought for the most part by wealthy tradesmen, who thus raised themselves into freedom and position.

Others who refused to *sell* their fiefs, *let* parts on leases to their serfs, who became the yeomen of the middle ages. Labour grew into demand; and "villains," working for hire, rose gradually into peasants and artisans.

(2) Experience in the open seas wrought a vast improvement in ship-building and navigation; intercourse with foreign nations enlarged the knowledge of history, geography, and literature, the arts and sciences, medicine and surgery, agriculture and manufactures, and indeed almost every thing that conduces to the well-being and prosperity of a state.



(3) **Marts** were established in various parts of the world for the use of the Crusaders; and commerce was developed by exports and imports, and the introduction of foreign articles and inventions. Wealth soon increased, and the power of wealth raised the middle class into a third estate.

(4) The natural result of commerce and manufactures is the growth of large towns. Large towns are concentrated wealth, intelligence, and numbers; and though at first they were under the dominion of the barons, yet were they always powerful, and their strength made them respected.

(5) Intercourse with other nations broke down many a rude prejudice, and a personal knowledge of the Greek and Saracenic civilization introduced a taste for luxuries and refinement. Nothing could probably have civilized feudal Europe so effectually and rapidly. The state of society was that of youth, when activity is essential, romance the dream of life, and adventure the great enjoyment. These the crusades supplied; gave vent to the spirits of the times; and taught by example more than precept, by experience rather than by rules.

Such were its social and civil effects, but their influence on the spirit of veneration and simple faith was most disastrous. Infidelity, religious speculation, and "philosophy falsely so called" overran Europe like a flood; and though the Romish church was the head and front of the movement, the crusades, without doubt, helped in no small degree to prepare the way for Luther and his reformation.

## LOUIS VI. LE GROS.

REIGNED 29 YEARS. FROM 1108 TO 1137. *Contemporary with Henry I. and Stephen.*

*Kingdom* included little else than the 5 cities of Paris, Orléans, Etampes, Melun, and Compiègne, with their respective territories.

The northern boundary belonged to the comte de Flandre; the southern to the counts of Chartres and Blois, Anjou and Touraine; the east to the comte de Champagne and duc de Bourgogne; and the west to the duc de Normandie and the king of England.

*Married* twice. First a sister of Hugues de Cregy, whom he divorced. Then Adelaïde, daughter of Hubert count of Savoy.

*Issue.* Philippe, who died before his father; Louis his successor; and 5 other sons. Also one daughter, Constance, the grandmother of prince Arthur, whom John deprived of the throne.

*Minister.* Abbé Suger till 1152.

Louis VI. surnamed the Corpulent (*le Gros*) had been associated with his father on the throne for eight years; he was active, brave, talented, and enterprising; prudent, strictly honest, and greatly beloved, especially by the poor, whose security and well-being were his constant care.

With this monarch began a new era of royalty. His predecessors, since the death of Charlemagne, had been merely feudal lords. Louis-le-Gros was something more: he exercised, over and above the feudal power, an authority which went to check abuses, protect the weak, and make the crown honoured and obeyed.

It was this struggle of royalty, which involved him in war with his vassals, and induced him to abolish serfdom on his own estates, and grant corporate rights to the cities under his jurisdiction. A greater degree of general order was thus secured, while a new element in the state was generated by the foundation of a free burgher class.

The principal crown vassals with whom he contended were Hugues de Cregy, and the lords of Montford, Monthery, Montmorency, Puiset, and Courey.

**War with England (1119).** It will be remembered that Philippe I. stirred up strife with William I. of England; fomented the unhappy dissensions between him and his family; and encouraged Robert to usurp the dukedom of Normandy, in order to sever it from the English crown.

William Rufus, to secure to himself the peaceable possession of England, consigned the dukedom to his brother Robert; but Henri I. resolved to win it back again, and made Robert a captive for life.

Louis VI. now interfered on behalf of William Cliton, Robert's son, whom he placed on the throne of Normandy; but Henry crossed over the channel, and Louis being defeated in the battle of *Brenville*, Normandy was confirmed to the crown of England.

The peace which followed was but of short duration, Louis renewed his intrigues in favour of William Cliton, and Henry prevailed on his son-in-law, the emperor of Germany, to join him against France.

The preparation on each side was most formidable. Louis brought into the field as many as 200,000 men, whose ready appearance afforded the first instance of the existence of a common national feeling of patriotism, ready to respond to the appeal of the sovereign.

The **Oriflamme** is said to have been borne aloft for the first time on this occasion as the national standard. How the struggle would have terminated it is impossible to say; happily the death of the German emperor put an end to the projected invasion; the French vassals returned to their castles, and Louis was compelled to make peace with England, never again interrupted during the rest of the reign.

The sacred banner consisted of a red flag mounted on a gilt staff. The loose end of the flag was cut into three tongues resembling flames, between each of which was a silk tassel. The *Oriflamme* was simply the banner of the abbot of St. Denis. When the counts of Vexin became possessed of the Abbey, it passed into their hands. In 1082 Philippe I. united Vexin to the crown, and the Oriflamme became the royal banner. It was never carried to the field after the battle of Agincourt (1415).

**Death of the Heir-Apparent (1131).** It was customary for the Capétian kings to associate their eldest son on the throne, in order to secure his peaceable succession. Louis-le-Gros, accordingly, had his son Philippe crowned; but this promising young man was killed two years afterwards by a fall from his horse.

It appears that swine were allowed to range about the streets to clear up the offal; and as Philippe was riding through Paris, one of these troublesome creatures ran under his horse's heels, and caused the fatal accident. The king was greatly grieved at the loss of his son; fell into a languishing state; and died in the 58th year of his age and 29th of his reign.

## CHARTERS OF COMMUNITY.

## THE FOURTH STEP TOWARDS CIVILIZATION.

According to feudal law, towns and cities, like all the rest of the soil, pertained to the barons; and the inhabitants, together with their houses and shops, were the property of the liege lord.

No citizen could give his daughter in marriage without the lord's consent, which was generally obtained by a sum of money. And as the townsmen and all they possessed belonged to their feudal superiors, of course they could not bequeath their property at death to their wives and children.

Louis VI., for his own ends, allowed Laon and Amiens to form themselves into *communes* or associations of defence. Other towns were permitted to purchase the same privilege; and thus the feudal lords were deprived of their strongest and wealthiest supporters.

As soon as a town was chartered it had its own militia, its own Guildhall (*Hôtel-de-ville*), its own magistrates; its belfry or tocsin to call the citizens to arms in times of danger, its heraldic arms, and its bye-laws. The citizens were free to marry and give in marriage, to acquire and bequeath property, and to go out or in at pleasure.

These were mighty privileges, and soon produced effects of amazing importance. The free towns rapidly increased in population; their merchants became wealthy; and their moral influence or numerical strength served more than anything else to overawe the local barons.

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 NOMINALISTS AND REALISTS.

In the reign of Louis-le-Gros began the religious controversy between the Nominalists and Realists, which for more than three centuries occupied the pens of the learned, and not unfrequently led to insults and even blows.

Roselin (1040—1120) canon of Compiègne [*Côn-pě-enn*] was the founder of the former school; and his most illustrious disciples are Abélard, William Occam, Buridan, Hobbes, Locke, Bishop Berkley, Condillac, and Dugald Stewart.

Guillaume de Champeaux [*Ghe-yome de Sharn-po*] (1053—1129) was the founder of the Realists; and his most distinguished followers are St. Anselm of Canterbury, Albertus Magnus, Thomas Aquinas, and Duns Scotus.

¶ The substance of their controversy is this: Roselin said, If the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost are *one God*, they cannot be three distinct *persons*, but must simply be three *names* of the same being, as father, son, and husband, are three distinct names of any man who has a family.

The Realists, on the other hand, contended that the Divine Trinity consists of three distinct persons, and that these three persons, nevertheless, constitute but one God.

It will be readily seen that nominalism is another phase of the great Arian and Sabellian* heresies, of which the present Socinians are a branch.

Abelard (1079—1142) though educated by Guillaume de Champeaux, was the most brilliant advocate of his opponents. His *Introduction to Theology* was condemned to be burnt by the Council of Soissons [*Swois-so'ng*], but the burning of his book did not allay the enthusiasm which his lectures excited.

* Arius held Christ to be a human being only, and the Holy Ghost a something created by His power. Neither of these, therefore, are equal to God in nature and dignity.

Sabellius taught that Christ (the Word) and the Holy Spirit are no *beings* at all, but merely functions or operations of Deity, as light and heat are emanations of the sun.

At length St. Bernard was requested to appear before the Council of Sens [*Sanss*] to argue the matter with Abélard. The Council gave its verdict in favour of the abbot, and the pope condemned Abélard to perpetual silence.

When Abélard was about 40 years of age the canon Fulbert employed him to give lessons to his niece Héloïse, a young lady of quality 22 years his junior. A violent attachment sprang up between master and pupil, fatal to their reputation and happiness. After much persecution and suffering Abélard erected at Troyes an oratory, which he called *Paraclete*, and placed Héloïse at the head of it. Here his ashes were deposited; but in 1817, the remains of both Abélard and Héloïse were removed to Père-la-Chaise in Paris, and buried in one sepulchre.

Abélard was unquestionably the boldest thinker of the 12th century. His merits are not to be estimated by his writings, but by the influence of his public disputations. He was an orator, logician, philosopher, mathematician, theologian, and poet; but, till very recently, the memory of his splendid talents was wholly eclipsed by the romantic story of his guilty love.

St. Bernard (1091—1153) abbot of Clairvaux [*Clair-vo*], called the “Last of the Fathers,” the “Mellifluous Doctor,” the “Oracle of the Church,” and the “River of Paradise,” was certainly the foremost man of the age; and no one could have been selected so well qualified to encounter the brilliant and enthusiastic Bretagne. Several of his works are still extant, and show an energetic, lively, elevated style, far different from the dry pedantry of the prosy schoolmen.

St. Bernard founded the “Order of Bernardines” or reformed Cistercians; and before he died, 160 branches were associated with the parent monastery. All sorts of handicraft and agricultural operations were carried on by the brethren of these houses. The productions not required by the communities were sold, and the money employed for the benefit of the brethren.

In 1145 St. Bernard was charged by the pope to advocate a new Crusade; and such was his success, that Louis VII. of France, and Conrad II. of Germany, were both induced by him to assume the cross. But the issue of this war was most disastrous; above a million perished in a vain attempt to take Damascus.

This is not the founder of the hospice on mount St. Bernard. St. Bernard of France was born at Dijon, at the close of the 11th century; but the St. Bernard who founded the hospice was born in Savoy, about a century sooner.

LOUIS VII. LE JEUNE (The Foolish.)

(So called from his extremely impolitic conduct.)

REIGNED 43 YEARS. FROM 1137 TO 1180. *Contemporary with Stephen and Henry II.*

Kingdom. He inherited through his wife Eléonore, the vast dukedom of Aquitaine, which contained 17 modern departments. When he divorced her and she married Henry II., all this splendid inheritance passed into the hands of the English.

The dominion of France was then reduced to 5 provinces or 13 departments, Artois, Picardie, Ile de France, Orléannais, and Berry, while Henry possessed Normandie, Marne, Anjou, Touraine, Poitou, Saintonge, Angoumois, and Aquitaine, equal to 24 departments.

Married thrice. First Eléonore, daughter and heir of Guillaume duc d'Aquitaine. Then Constance, daughter of Alfonso of Castile. And lastly Alice, daughter of Thibaud, comte de Champagne.

Issue by his first wife, Marie and Alice; by his second, Marguerite; and by his third, Philippe, Agnes, and Alice.

Louis VII. interdicted (1142). Louis-le-Jeune was only 18 when he succeeded to the throne. He began his reign by seeking to control the power of the clergy; and soon an event occurred which brought him into direct collision with the pontiff:

The archbishop of Bourges died; and Innocent II. nominated a successor. Louis denied his right to “invest;” and the pope, in order to carry his point, laid him under an interdict.

This was the third of the Capétian kings who had fallen under the ban of the church. Never was dynasty more devout, more deferential to the pope, and more friendly to the clergy; and never was there a race of kings treated with such rigour and injustice.

The Vitry Disaster (1143). The young king next got into trouble with Thibaud [*Tebo*], count of Champagne: Thibaud's sister had married the comte de Vermandois; but Louis persuaded him to divorce her, and ally himself with the queen's sister.

The count of Champagne, to resent this interference, stirred up a rebellion against the king; and Louis, to punish the revolt, set fire to the castle of Vitry. The flames spread to the town. The inhabitants, in their panic, fled to the church for refuge. The church caught fire; and 1300 persons were burnt to death.

The king heard the shrieks of the poor sufferers, and saw several of their mangled bodies, which so horrified him that he gave up the war, and made peace with the count.

Second Crusade (1146—1149). Soon after the disaster at Vitry, news reached France that Edessa, in Syria, had fallen into the hands of the Mussulmans; that 30,000 Christians had been massacred; and 20,000 more reduced to slavery.

All Europe was in consternation. A cry of vengeance rose on every side. And St. Bernard, the "oracle of France," called upon the faithful to vindicate the honour of the cross.

Louis-le-Jeune, to atone for the disaster of Vitry, put himself at the head of 100,000 men; and, joined by the emperor of Germany, departed for the Holy Land.

These two were the first monarchs who engaged personally in the Crusades. Suger [*Su-zja*], the minister, strongly protested against the king's going, but Louis was obstinate, and Suger was left regent.

More than half of this fine army was lost in the defiles of Laodicæa. With the remaining portion Louis attempted several expeditions, in all of which he failed. At length he reached the Holy Sepulchre, but only as a pilgrim; and after having paid his vows, returned home with the prestige of his name, both as a monarch and knight, wholly destroyed.

Eleonore divorced (1152). This misadventure soured his temper; estranged the minds of his nobles; and made him despised by his wife, a very haughty, ambitious woman.

After a time, both agreed to a separation; and Eléonore, six weeks afterwards, married young Henry Plantagenet, lord of Normandy, Maine, and Anjou, who succeeded to the crown of England the year following.

Nothing could possibly have happened more impolitic on the part of Louis than this. Eléonore carried with her Poitou and Aquitaine,

which were added to the dominions of Henry, already far too powerful for the interest of France.

Suger most strenuously opposed the divorce, but to no purpose; and in the course of the same month, this wise counsellor died.

Suger (1092—1152) was born of poor parents, but was certainly one of the most illustrious ministers of France, and was called the *Father of his country* for his wise administration, strict justice, and true patriotism. He wrote a *Life of Louis VII.*, and was founder of the *Great Chronicles* of St. Denis.

Close of the Reign of Louis VII. When Henry II. ascended the throne of England, war broke out between him and Louis, with little or no advantage on either sides. At last a reconciliation took place; and Louis took a voyage to Canterbury, to visit the shrine of St. Thomas à Becket.

On his return he was attacked with paralysis; and died in the 60th year of his age, and the 43rd of his reign.

Louis VII. was surnamed *le Jeune*, because he was no better than a child in all that constituted worldly policy and kingly craft:

His leaving his kingdom to conduct an absurd expedition to the Holy land was perfectly puerile;

His divorcing Eléonore, and giving up the two provinces of Poitou and Aquitaine, were *jeune* and most disastrous to France;

His going to Palestine by land rather than by sea, contrary to the advice of his best counsellors, was more like an obstinate headstrong boy, than a wise and prudent monarch.

In his wars with Henry of England he was guilty of several acts of short-sighted perfidy, which failed in every instance, and were puerile both in conception and execution.

On the whole, though an amiable man, he was without any talent for governing. Whatever he undertook, he spoiled, not from misconduct, but from want of common prudence, manly energy, and that worldly wisdom which experience generally confers.

The *fleurs-de-lis* were adopted in this reign as the symbol of the French monarchy. The royal standard was thickly charged with them, but subsequently the number was reduced to three. The origin and signification of the emblem are both unknown. Some think the *fleur* is an iris, others assert it to be the head of a lance, and others again contend it to be designed for a bee; more probably it represents blossoming flag or the reed placed, instead of sceptre, in the hands of the early Frankish kings at their proclamation.

REVIVAL OF THE CIVIL LAW.

THE FIFTH STEP TOWARDS MODERN CIVILIZATION.

In the reign of Louis-le-Jeune was discovered a copy of the *Institutes*, or Laws of Justinian the Roman emperor; a discovery which soon exercised a mighty influence over the greater part of Europe.

From this moment, the civil law became the great study of the learned. Colleges were erected in various parts of Christendom for instruction in Roman jurisprudence; monarchs vied with each other in conferring honours

on its professors ; the feudal laws were compiled and reduced into a system ; and the "Imperial Law," that is the Code of Justinian, was the rule of all tribunals.

Previous to this discovery only one study, that of arms, had been open to the laity ; and only one subject, that of religious controversy, had occupied the more active spirits of the clergy ; but when the influence of the Roman law was felt, and the conduct of legal business committed to persons trained for the profession, a new order of men began to acquire consideration.

Judges and pleaders were honoured with the orders of knighthood ; and students in the colleges received various "degrees in arms," and were termed *soldiers* of law or letters.

A new opening was thus made for distinction ; and gave rise to such an ardent spirit of inquiry, that ingenuity and invention were tortured into activity.

It is almost impossible to overrate the importance of this new study. It supplied a want which had been long felt, but which nothing had hitherto supplied.

Previous to this discovery, resentment was the rule of justice ; and trial by combat, ordeals, or appeals to God, were the general methods of procedure.

The civil law taught men that the chief end of punishment is either to reform the offender, or to deter others from committing the same offence ; that laws, in order to be useful, must be certain in their operation ; that the way to discover guilt is by the exercise of reason, and the testimony of witnesses ; and that for this purpose men must be trained to balance evidence.

Hence the appointment of magistrates, pleaders, and juries ; and hence a scale of punishment proportioned to the gravity of the offence.

The steps of improvement in jurisprudence were as follows :—

- (1) The payment of a *fine* by way of satisfaction to the injured person. The fine was first awarded by voluntary agreement, next by arbiters, and then by appointed judges.
- (2) The prohibition of further hostilities after the offended party had accepted compensation.
- (3) The punishment by a civil magistrate of the person who renewed hostilities.
- (4) The jurisdiction of feudal lords.
- (5) The power of removing a cause to a superior court.
- (6) The appointment of bailiffs with royal authority.
- (7) Fixing the locality of the king's court, and its time of sessions.
- (8) The appointment of circuit judges.

~~~~~ HISTORY OF FRENCH POETRY.

PART I.—TROUBADOURS AND TROUVÈRES.

Langue d'oc and Langue d'oïl.* The earliest known inhabitants of France were Celts, who spoke the Celtic language. When the Romans reduced Gaul to a province, the aboriginal language became deeply imbued with Latin ; and this mixed language was called *Romance*, a term applied to all the Latinized languages of Europe, as Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, &c., as well as French.

† When the Franks and other German tribes poured into Gaul, they brought with them, of course, their different dialects of German or Tudesque, which soon formed another element in the language ; and this "Germanized Romance" was called *Walloon*.†

As by far the larger number of Franks settled *north* of the Loire, the German element was hardly known to the inhabitants south of that river. Hence the people of Gaul for many centuries spoke two languages, as different as Scotch and English : those south of the Loire spoke Romance, while those further north spoke Walloon.

* Pronounce Larn-gě doc, Larn-gě doë, the *g* as in "get."

† Walloon or Waelchs is the German for *Galli* (Latin), and *Galatai* (Greek), classic forms of the word *Keltai* (Celts). Our word Welsh is the same.

Now the Romance word for "yes" is *oc*, and the Walloon word *oïl* (o-e). Hence the former is called *le langue d'oc*, and the latter *le langue d'oïl*. The *langue d'oc* is now a mere patois, like our Somersetshire and Cornish dialects; but the *langue d'oïl* has been polished into the modern Parisian French.

Troubadours (11th, 12th, 13th centuries) were the Provençals [*Pro-vance-art*] or minstrels of the south of France. They made their first appearance in the reign of Louis-le-Jeune, and had the honour of being the first authors of modern Europe who employed their native tongue for composition.

Before the appearance of these rhymers, Latin was the only medium of literature; not from pedantry, but necessity; for the language of the people was so crude and uncertain, so split into dialects, so poor and constantly changing, that no author could make use of it.

The poetry of the Provençals or Troubadours was of two sorts, *chanzos* or poems of love and gallantry, and *sirventes* or lays of chivalry and war. The former had a subdivision called the *tenson* (or contension), a poetical dialogue, not unlike those eclogues of Virgil in which two or more shepherds contend together in song.

The origin of these "tensons" is as follows: After the public jousts were over, the lady of the castle opened her "court of love," in which the combatants contended, not with spear and shield, but with harp and song.

Some knight of the party stepped forward, and challenged any one present to a combat of poetry; another knight accepted the challenge; the two sang upon some given subject; and the castle-lady acted as umpire.

Jongleurs. As it was by no means the case that every poet was a musician in those days, any more than in our own, a class of minstrels, called jongleurs, or players on the jongleur (a sort of guitar or hurdy-gurdy) arose, and accompanied those troubadours who chose to employ them.

When the cruel wars against the Albigenes laid desolate the castles of the provençals, and overwhelmed the people with misery, hatred, terror, and fright, the knightly bards disappeared, but the hireling jongleurs remained behind.

Some of them had visited the east, and learned the art of conjuring; some had no poetry in them, and tried to earn a living by antics and feats of prowess; others introduced whatever they thought would amuse and bring the best harvest; so that in a short time, the player on the jongleur became the common juggler, or person skilled in sleight of hand.

Trouveres* [*trou-vair*] (12th, 13th, and 14th centuries). Posterior by at least a hundred years to the provençal poets, were the Trouvères of Normandy and north of France generally. The language they employed was the Walloon, or *langue d'oïl*, which bears the same analogy to modern French as the language of Chaucer to modern English.

The Norman poets were not writers of songs and ballads, madrigals and canzonets, like the southerners, but of satires and romances, tales of knavery and adventure, legends and historical anecdotes. Sir Walter Scott's "Marmion," "Lady of the Lake," "Rokeby," and so on, are excellent imitations of the Trouvère minstrelsy.

This class of poetry may be divided into three distinct cycles: The *first* in which the element of the story was historical, and referred to the achievement of some Gothic, Frankish, or Burgundian hero. The *second* embodied the traditions of Charlemagne, and the achievements of his paladins. The *third* took up the traditions of British story, such as the fabulous Brut or Brutus, King Arthur and his knights of the round table, King Horn, and so on.

* The meaning of Troubadour and Trouvère is identical. The former is derived from the Provençal verb *troubar*, pronounced *trouver* in the Walloon dialect, and meaning "to invent." Our word "poet" signifies the same thing, and comes from a Greek verb which means "to make" or "create."

Somewhat later followed the metrical tales about *Alexander*, written in long verse, of twelve or thirteen syllables to the line. From the employment of this sort of verse, in the thirteenth century, to the subject of Alexander, verses of twelve or thirteen syllables came to be called Alexandrines.

Lastly came the *allegorical* romances, long tedious didactic poems, in which all the virtues, vices, and passions were represented as allegorical personages, as in Bunyan's *Pilgrim* and Spencer's *Fairy Queen*.

By far the most celebrated of these poems is the *Romance of the Rose*, begun by Guillaume de Lorris, in the latter half of the thirteenth century, and concluded by Jean de Meung, in the early part of the fourteenth.

This poem was received with boundless enthusiasm; and for a whole century strongly influenced the literature of Europe. It was at once a romance and allegory, of dreary length; but enlivened here and there by allegorical portraits drawn with vivacity and spirit, strokes of satire, and lessons of practical wisdom.

The continuation by Meung is much more pretentious than the former part, as it abounds in classical allusions, and introduces a fund of learning; but it is deformed by much ribaldry and coarseness.

Fabliaux [*Fah-ble-o*] (1150-1350). More striking still than any of the preceding is that vast collection of French poetry called *Fabliaux*, almost exclusively the production of the provinces north of the Loire, and chiefly written in the reign of St. Louis.

They were short fables or tales in verse, many of which have been dramatized; but perhaps the best known are the tale of *Reynard the Fox* and Parnell's *Hermit*.

These compositions differ greatly in character from those of the Provençals [*Pro-vançé-arl*]. The southern poets were, for the most part, knights and nobles; their style was elevated and imposing, their theme chivalry or love. The *Fabliaux* poets, on the other hand, were generally men of low degree, wandering minstrels who earned their living by song. No doubt some of them were men of keen observation and vigorous minds, but they were not gentlemen. They were always welcome guests, but never honoured ones.

Experiencing every extreme of life, sometimes they helped to beguile the tedium of a baronial feast; at another time they sat down in the wayside hut, or roamed like vagrants, harp in hand, picking up whatever charity bestowed.

The subjects chosen by these minstrels were chiefly familiar incidents of knavery or intrigue, Asiatic legends connected with the crusades, or family traditions.

The best that has come down to our knowledge is the fabliau of *Aucassin and Nicolette*, tender and natural, full of interesting situations, and very far superior to the greater part of the more elaborate romances.

These several rhymers flourished for about three centuries, and then died out so completely that their productions were ranked amongst those of the dead languages; and it is not a little remarkable that of all the hundreds and thousands of minstrels crowded into this period, not one single master-spirit arose, whose name and works, like those of Homer, Virgil, and Dante [*Darn-ty*], have survived the wreck of time.

Latin Hymns. Contemporary with the *Fabliaux* [*Fah-ble-o*], were the Monkish hymns, written in rhyme in bastard Latin. Some of them, as the *Stabat Mater* and *Diēs iræ*, are extremely pathetic and awful; others, as the *Jam mæsta* and *Avē Maris Stella*, are less awful, but not less beautiful.

It cannot be said that the middle age was unpoetical. There was a vast amount of poetry, but none stands out very prominently, and less still is identified with any particular names.

Diēs Iræ is attributed to Thomas de Celano, who lived in the first part of the 13th century.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS VII. LE JEUNE.

In this reign lived two men whose works had a mighty influence for many centuries upon the religious world, though in widely different ways: Pierre Waldo, the Morning Star of the Reformation in France, and Pierre Lombard, archbishop of Paris.

Pierre Waldo (1120—1179), a native of Lyons, having amassed a large fortune by merchandise, retired from business, and devoted himself wholly to acts of piety and devotion.

He taught that the laity might conduct the offices of religion as well as the clergy; that the doctrine of transubstantiation has no warrant from Scripture; that it is wrong to invoke saints; that there is no such place as purgatory; that there are only two sacraments; that the Pope of Rome does not hold the keys of heaven; and that he never received them from St. Peter.

Opinions so heretical soon called down the resentment of the Roman hierarchy. Persecution ensued; and Waldo with his disciples was obliged to seek refuge in the mountains of Dauphiné [*Do-phè-ney*] and Piedmont, where a considerable number of them survive to the present day.

Pierre Waldo translated the Bible into Romance; and the Waldenses have always been noted for their knowledge of the Holy Scripture.

Pierre Lombard (1100—1164) may be called the founder of that hair-splitting theology, which occupied the attention of the schoolmen all the latter half of the middle ages; not that he was the first to divert the taste of ecclesiastics from the study of the Fathers to metaphysical speculations, but that he was the first to compile, in his book of *Sentences*, the leading arguments of the questions, and to support them by quotations from the Fathers. The “Book of Sentences” is a complete body of scholastic divinity, so well arranged, and so clearly set forth, that it was universally adopted by students as their hand-book of divinity; and as many as 244 commentators have written annotations upon it.

Amongst these commentators may be mentioned St. Bonaventure, called the *Seraphic doctor*; Thomas Aquinas, the *Angelic doctor*; Guillaume Durand, the *Most Resolute doctor*, &c., &c.

Pierre Lombard has furthermore deserved well, for introducing into the Paris University the degrees of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor, for students in divinity. This learned foundation soon after became the principal divinity school in Europe; and was appealed to, not unfrequently, to decide questions of dispute and points of difficulty.

The Three Periods of Scholastic Divinity.

Scholastic Divinity had three periods, the Ancient, Middle, and New.

- (1) The *Ancient* began under Abélard and his disciple Lombard; and remained in vogue for a hundred years. In this period it was pithy and logical.
- (2) The *Middle* began under Albertus-Magnus, who published 21 folio volumes. His disciple Thomas Aquinas published 17 more. In this period it was subtle and frivolous.
- (3) The *Third* period dates from Durandus, bishop of Meaux (*Mo*), a man of considerable wit and genius. The whole mass of school divinity is held in very low esteem (*see p. 185.*)

Schoolmen, so called because they taught in the schools established by Charlemagne.

PHILIPPE II. AUGUSTE.

REIGNED 43 YEARS. FROM 1180 TO 1223. AIMS AT ABSOLUTE AUTHORITY.

Contemporary with Henry II., Richard I., John, and Henry III.

Kingdom. All that belonged to the crown at the accession of this king was about five modern departments.

1180 Artois added by *marriage*. It was again alienated in 1477, and finally reunited in 1678.

1185 Amiénois (i.e. Amiens and its immediate environs) added by *conquest*; in 1435 it was attached to the duchy of Burgundy, and finally united to the crown in 1477.

1198 Auvergne added by confiscation, but not finally attached to the crown till 1610.

1204 Normandie added by confiscation. The English held it from 1346 to 1450; but in 1468 it was finally united to the kingdom of France.

— Touraine, Anjou, and Maine *confiscated*, but not definitely attached to the crown till 1584.

1205 Poitou added by *conquest*, but not definitely till 1432.

— Berry added to the crown by *conquest*.

1215 Vermandois and Valois added by *conquest*; but from 1240 to 1392 the latter was an appanage.

Married thrice. First Isabelle, daughter of the duke of Hainault. Next Ingelburge, sister of Knute VI. of Denmark, whom he divorced. Lastly Agnes de Méranie.

Issue. By his first wife, Louis who succeeded him. By his third wife, Philippe comte de Namur.

Residence. The Louvre, &c.

History of the reign. Cœpefigue's "Histoire." Rigord his historiographer began a history of his patron, which was continued by Guillaume le Breton.

Philippe II., surnamed Auguste, from the month of August in which he was born, was one of the greatest princes that ever reigned, and by far the wisest and most powerful of all the monarchs of France, since the death of Charlemagne.

He was tall, well-formed, handsome, and of fair complexion; but bronzed by exposure and manly exercise. His nose was slightly aquiline, his chin rather prominent, his eyes blue and very keen, but set too near together. His general physiognomy clearly indicated a quick sagacity and resolute temper.

In manners he was affable but very hasty. He was steady and persevering, pious and charitable; but wholly unscrupulous when any political advantage was to be gained, ambitious to excess, and eager to amass money.

The main objects of his reign were to reconstruct the kingdom, and elevate the royal power and dignity.

His great obstacle was Henry II. of England, an able, energetic, persevering, and politic prince, an excellent warrior, and better tactician, who had every advantage of position, experience, wealth, and numbers; and who possessed even in France far more territory, vassals, soldiers, and power, than the king himself. So long as Henry lived, the efforts of Philippe were of very little avail; but after the death of "Curtmantle," he had to cope first with the Lion Richard, and then with John.

The former of these was the most daring, reckless, and passion-led adventurer of the middle ages; and it was then that the calm cool temperament of the French Augustus, his patience, craft, and perse-

verance, began to make head by petty acquisitions, encroachments, and victories.

John was a braggart and coward, knave and coxcomb, passionate, debauched, indolent, deceitful, and a tyrant. With him Philippe played to every advantage; and won to France, with little difficulty, Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Poitou, and Touraine.

The course of these several struggles composes the history of this long reign; though other events of stirring interest, such as the third and fourth crusades, the extirpation of the Albigenes in the south of France, and the enlargement of the capital, marched on with contemporaneous strides.

Third Crusade (1188). The Latin kingdom of Jerusalem was overthrown by Saleh-Eddin (Salādin) sultan of Egypt; but its internal condition had long prepared it for ruin.

Its three last sovereigns had been singularly unsuitable. They were Baldwin IV., a *leper*; Sybilla, his *sister*; Baldwin V., a *child*; Guy of Lusignan, a *coward*; and Raymond count of Tripöli, a *traitor*.

The rapid conquests of Salādin spread grief and consternation through all Christendom; and, by order of pope Clement III., a new crusade was everywhere recommended.

The three greatest sovereigns of Europe, Richard I. of England, Frederick Barbarossa of Germany, and Philippe-Auguste of France, assumed the cross on this occasion. The preparations were gigantic, but the effects produced ill-corresponded with the general expectation.

Frederick lost his life by fever caught from bathing in the Orontes. Philippe, jealous of the king of England, abandoned him, under the plea of ill-health; and Richard, though he performed prodigies of valour, was glad to conclude a treaty with the sultan, simply stipulating that pilgrims should be allowed to visit the Holy City free of impost or toll.

Philippe-Auguste, on his return to France, most dishonourably attacked Normandy, during the absence of king Richard; instigated John to usurp the throne of England; and offered enormous bribes to Henry VI. of Germany to detain the Lion-hearted monarch prisoner. Richard returned unexpectedly to England; reduced his brother to submission; and avenged himself on Philippe; but, in the course of five years, was killed at the siege of a petty fort in Poitou (1199).

Philippe II. was surnamed *The Magnanimous*, but his conduct all throughout this infamous transaction, must exclude him for ever from any claim to such a title.

Philippe II. interdicted (1200). On the death of Isabelle, his first wife, Philippe married by proxy Ingelburge the sister of Knute VI., king of Denmark; but when she reached Paris, he felt so strong an aversion to her, that he convoked a synod of his clergy to annul the contract.

It so happened that Innocent III. was elected pope about this time; a man of powerful mind, indomitable obstinacy of purpose, great boldness of spirit, and revered by the clergy.

Rome had for centuries been stretching out her hands into all the kingdoms round about to snatch away their royal prerogatives; and this was a good opportunity for her to humble the proud crown of France, and put it under the sandal of St. Peter.

Philippe, however, was a haughty independent spirit. He not only divorced Ingelburge without consulting Rome, but actually married Agnes-de-Merānie, to whom he was devotedly attached.

A contest between such a pope and such a monarch could not fail to be desperate; and so indeed it proved.

The pope timed his attack with wonderful astuteness. It was when Philippe and his bride were gone in state to attend a public tournament. All the bravest knights of the realm were present, and a crowd of gentry and citizens almost without number.

In the midst of the games, the cardinal of St. Marie, with a long train of ecclesiastics marched through the lists to the royal pavilion, and insolently rebuked the king for putting away his wife and living in adultery.

Philippe, mad with rage, started from his throne; and waving his warder, broke up the games. The queen fainted; the knights cried shame on the cardinal; and the ecclesiastics were driven off amidst the taunts and menaces of the crowd.

The king, of course, refused to obey the pontifical mandate; and the pope, without further delay, excommunicated him, and placed the kingdom under an interdict.

The anathema was read in all the churches of France: "May he be cursed in the city, in the field, and in the highway, in living and in dying. Cursed in his offspring, in his flocks, and in his people. Let no man call him brother, or bid him God speed. Let all men flee from him while living; let no consolation attend his death-bed; and let his corpse lie unburied in the high-road to whiten in the wind. Cursed be he on the earth, and cursed under the earth; in the life that now is, and in that which is to come."

Such were the words of excommunication; and as the curse was ended, all the candles and lamps were suddenly extinguished, and the congregation had to grope their way out in the dark.

The interdict extended to the whole kingdom: All churches were closed; all crucifixes and images of saints were laid in ashes, and covered with sackcloth; all religious services were suspended; and the nation was treated as an outcast, till Philippe consented to put away Agnes, and acknowledge Ingelburge to be his lawful wife.

It is impossible, in the nineteenth century, in a protestant country, to realize the full extent of this judgment. In those days the people believed the curse of the church to be the curse of God; and felt most keenly the privation of every religious ceremony.

There was no matin or evening prayer; no Sabbath with its accustomed service; no church festivals; and no religious rites. The new-born child was not baptized; the young could not be married; there was no eucharist for the sick; no holy oil nor absolution for the dying; no burial in consecrated ground for the dead.

Every morning, noon, and night, in every relationship of life, the curse made itself felt. Religious habits, which had become a part of the regular routine of daily duties, were snapped asunder in a moment.

The whole kingdom was in revolt, and Agnes felt it no use to resist. With noble self-denial she voluntarily withdrew; the king sent a letter of submission to the pontiff; and the ban was withdrawn.

No language can express the joy which now spread over the face of France. The whole land rang with acclamations. And so crowded were the churches to hear the absolution, that hundreds were trampled to death in their struggle for admission.

Agnes, however, did not outlive the shock. She retired to one of the royal residences, and died a few months afterwards of a broken heart (1201).

From this moment Philippe resolved so to strengthen the power of the crown, that no pontiff ever afterwards should dare to repeat the same offence.

Another of Philippe's titles was *The Gift of God*, but how those who bestowed it can reconcile it with this passage of his life is wholly inexplicable. A still greater bar to this title is his religious persecutions of the Jews at the beginning of his reign, and of the Albigenses at the close.

War with John (1203—1204). While France was under the interdict, Arthur Plantagenet implored Philippe to assist him in wresting the crown of England from John. Philippe gladly allowed any of his knights to join the standard of the young prince, and some little success attended their arms; but ere long, Arthur was betrayed into the hands of his uncle, and murdered in the castle of Rouen [*Roo-on'g*].

When Philippe-Auguste heard of this outrage, he summoned John to appear before him within 20 days to answer for the crime.

This may seem strange, yet was it in strict accordance with the usages of the feudal system. John was independent of the crown of France in regard to his English dominions, but for his French possessions he owed homage to Philippe as his suzerain. It was not as king of England, therefore, that he was cited to appear before his feudal lord, but simply as a vassal of France.

If he refused to obey, the enfeofed territories became forfeit, and returned to the capital lord under whom he held them.

The palace of the Louvre, on the morning of the trial, was truly a most gorgeous spectacle. Around sat the highest dignitaries of the land in their robes of ermine, and bearing on their brows their respective coronets. In the centre sat the king upon an elevated throne, surrounded by all the insignia of royalty, and wearing around his head a bandlet of gold, jewelled and adorned with *fleurs-de-lis*. On the left stood Mountjoy king-at-arms, and on his right De Courcy, the only free baron of France.

When all was ready, the herald summoned John, as duke of Normandy, to appear; the summons was not answered, and the court pronounced the contumacious vassal worthy of death, and his feofs of Normandy, Anjou, Poitou, Maine, and Aquitaine, forfeit to the crown.

Hereupon Philippe exclaimed, "To arms, to arms, gentlemen of France! your judgment is pronounced, and it is meet to enforce it. Call together your vassals, and let us march against this unknighly king to support our award."

Scarcely had the herald carried the sentence to England, when every part of John's dominions in France was invaded by overwhelming forces. His own barons, disgusted with his baseness, levity, and treachery, afforded him but little aid; and before two months were expired, almost every town in Normandy had submitted to his rival.

The wars began, as usual, by hordes of plunderers let loose upon the feofs to pillage and destroy; while protection was promised to all who submitted; charters of freedom to the towns; and to the barons security of all their rights and privileges.

With these promises in case of submission, and certain ruin if they remained obdurate, it is not to be wondered at, that the triumph of Philippe was rapid and certain. Battles there were none, but sieges and skirmishes in abundance. The English were wholly driven from their northern feofs, and only Guyenne remained to them. This provence also would have followed the same fate, had not Philippe been diverted to the movements of a most formidable league against his life and crown.

Battle of Bouvines (1214). In the meantime John had not been idle. He was wise enough to see that his best plan of proceeding was to tamper with the disaffected, and ally himself to the enemies of France.

With this view he addressed himself first to Otho, Emperor of Germany. He next applied with equal success to Ferrand, Count of Flanders, one of the greatest vassals of the French crown; then

to the dukes of Brabant and Lembergh, and the counts of Holland, Namur, and Boulogne.

At length, an army of 150,000 men was brought into the field. Philippe awaited their attack at the bridge of Bouvines [*Boo-veen*], some nine miles to the south of Lille [*Leel*]. A most sanguinary battle was fought, which lasted six hours, and probably has no equal in the annals of history.

It was one of those "great decisive battles of the world," which affect the entire history of a people. If Philippe had lost it, France would have been partitioned among the conquerors; but as he was victorious, it rose to a united and first-class power.

The third title given to Philippe-Auguste was that of *Conqueror*; but surely it required no great prowess or strategy to overthrow or outwit such a dastardly prince as John Lackland. The effect to France, however, was the same as if John had been as valiant as Salâdin, or the Lion-hearted king of England.

First War with the Albigenses (1208—1229). Philippe Auguste, though by no means either cruel or morose, persecuted both the Jews and Albigenses with unrelenting cruelty. The very first act of his reign was to expel the Jews from his kingdom, under the plea of their being usurers, usury being forbidden by the church or Rome. And his reign closed with a no less scandalous crusade against the Albigenses, a sect of reformers living in the south of France.

This crusade was intrusted to Simon de Montfort, called the French *Maccabæus*, and the most celebrated military genius of the 12th century.

He first attacked them in the town of Beziers [*Bez-zě-ay*], where he put 20,000 of them to the sword. He then marched to Carcassonne, where 450 were burnt to death; and from Carcassonne he marched to Muret [*Mu-ray*], on the Garonne, where he was besieged by the king of Arâgon, who took the reformers' part. Montfort made a *sortie* from the city; utterly defeated the besieging army; and the king their leader was left dead upon the field.

Once more the religionists rallied, and fortified themselves in Toulouse. Foulquet [*Fool-kay*], the bishop, proposed that they should go forth "in the name of the God of Peace, and make terms with the count." They followed this advice; but no sooner had they left the city, than Montfort fell upon them, and made them prisoners.

This outrage exasperated to frenzy the surviving friends of the party; all Languedoc rose as one man; and Montfort was killed by a stone, as he was attacking Toulouse a second time [1218].

Nothing more horrible or infamous than these crusades was ever perpetrated; and the name of Montfort has ever since been a byeword for cruelty and treachery.

Death of Philippe Auguste (1223). After a glorious reign of 43 years the French Augustus died, universally considered the real founder of the monarchy.

When he ascended the throne, his whole kingdom was not larger than the county of Yorkshire. All the west of France belonged to England or Prince Arthur, the south to Aragon, and the east to Germany; and all that pertained to the crown was the Ile-de-France, with portions of Picardy and Orléanois; but ere he died, he had extended his frontiers from the Scheldt to the Mediterranean, and from the Rhine to the Atlantic Ocean.

¶ Not only in a territorial point of view did he merit the title, he was also the founder of its regal rank and power; a rank which acknowledged no peer, a power which reached to the utmost verge of his dominion.

(1) To this end, he broke up the influence of the English vassals in France, who kept the kingdom divided against itself.

(2) He ordained that the king should in no wise do homage to any man; but if a fief were held by the crown, it should be free of fealty.

(3) He took from the barons the right of deciding litigations according to their caprice; and established bailiffs in all the crown lands, and a regular system of law, according to which they were to award judgments.

(4). These were wise and politic measures for his subjects; but he provided no less for the dignity and security of the crown, by creating a royal body-guard of 1200 serjeants-at-arms, whose sole duty was to watch the palace, and accompany the king wherever he went. This guard was first established while the king was in Syria, to protect him from the politico-religious fanatics, called Assassins; and was retained on his return, not so much to insure his personal security, as to increase the pomp and circumstance of royalty.

It was in this reign that the chamber of peers, consisting of six secular and six ecclesiastical lords, was instituted to act as a Council of State; the university of Paris was established; the Louvre built; and many noble institutions were founded.

He also created the first militia called Ribalds (1189). This militia was subsequently suppressed on account of their unbridled licentiousness. The captain was called the *King of the Ribalds*, but Charles V. altered his title to *Provost of the Hôtel*.

STATE OF FRANCE IN THE TWELFTH CENTURY.

France in the twelfth century was very little better than the back woods of America. The whole country was a vast forest, with clearings here and there rudely tilled by serfs of the glebe.

The population was extremely thin and scattered. There was no police; and though the feudal lord exercised a sort of jurisdiction in his own territory,

the whole land was filled with robbers called *Brabançons*, from Brabant where they were most numerous.

Some of these were simply highwaymen, called *Routiers*; others were called *écorceurs*, because they stripped their victims of everything, even their clothes; others were cut-throats, and called *cottreaux*, from the knives (*couteaux*) which they carried.

The origin of these hordes was this: The vassals, by the condition of their feudal tenures, owed their lords a short period of military service; when this expired they were free, and hired themselves as free-lances to any one who would pay them; but if no one required their service, they dispersed themselves abroad and lived by pillage.

Such was the position of France when Philippe-Auguste ascended the throne. There was a king, but he was surrounded by a host of feudatories, each of whom was a petty sovereign, and obeyed him or not as they thought proper. There was a numerous nobility, chivalrous and enthusiastic; a population of serfs just emerging into liberty; a host of military spirits living by rapine; and no police.

Philippe did much to improve this state of things; but the seed he sowed did not bear fruit for many years to come. He had grand views, but inadequate powers. He sat firmly on the throne, and his successors reaped the benefit of his wise and prudent measures.

PARIS AND ITS IMPROVEMENTS BY PHILIPPE-AUGUSTE.

The present city of Paris is divided into two unequal parts by the river Seine [*Sain*].

On the *north* side stand the Arc-de-Triomphe, the Porte-St.-Denis [*Port San Dneé*], and the Porte-St.-Martin. There also we find the Champs-Élysées [*Charns-Aleezay*], the two great cemeteries, the Hôtel-de-Ville, the superb Madeleine [*Maul-lain*], the Bourse, the Palais-Royal, and the Boulevards de la Madeleine, des Capucines, des Italiens, and so on. Here dwells the English ambassador. Here stand the Tuileries and the Louvre. It is the newest and best part of the present city.

On the *south* side of the river we find the Hôtel-des-Invalides, the Palais-de-Luxembourg, the Jardin-des-Plantes, the Panthéon, the Legislative Assembly, and so on. This part contains the principal mansions of the old French nobility, but is now old-fashioned, gloomy, and cumbersome.

Between these two parts runs the river Seine; and about midway are two little aits or islands, which divert the stream from its regular course.

The larger of these two islands is called the Ile-du-Palais; the other the Ile-St.-Louis. The latter is about half the size of the former, and communicates with it by what is called the City Bridge (*Pont de la Cité*).

The whole Ile-du-Palais is about one-third larger than the present mass of buildings forming the Tuileries and Louvre. It was this island alone which for many centuries constituted the city of Paris, the capital of the French empire. Here a tribe of the Celtic Gauls, called Parisii, built their mud huts of a circular form, thatched with reeds from the river.

When Julian was appointed "Cæsar of Gaul," he erected a palace on the south shore, opposite the island, in the street now called *de-la-Harpe*. The ruins of this edifice are still extant, and form one of the most interesting sights of Paris. They are called Thermes [*Ta'erm*], because the "thermæ" or bath-house is the part which remains.

Clovis, after his baptism, built a residence for himself *in the isle* or "city" as it was then called; and it was in this palace that the kings resided up to the time of Philippe-Auguste, who preferred the feudal castle of the Louvre.*

As the isle was the royal residence of the early kings, it obtained the name of the Palace-island [*Ile-du-Palais*], a name which it retains even to the present hour.

The old palace of Clovis was converted by Charles V. into law courts, and has ever since been termed the *Palais-de-Justice*. Here are still united all the law-courts of Paris, except the Tribunal of Commerce.

Besides the Palais-de-Justice, the island contains the cathedral of Notre-Dame. The whole was fortified by a high wall, but there was a bridge to the opposite bank on each side.

The one leading to the north bank led from the Palais-de-Justice, and is now called the *Pont-au-Change*. A strong fort called the great Chatelet [*Shart-lay*] guarded this access to the city.

The bridge to the south bank was thrown across the river close by the Cathedral of Notre-Dame. It is now called the *Petit-Pont*, and was guarded by the little Chatelet.

The former bridge and fort were built by the emperor Julian, and reconstructed by Philippe-Auguste. The latter was a wooden bridge, till Charles V. replaced it for one of stone. Both the chatelets were used as prisons as well as forts.

¶ By the twelfth century both the islands and their opposite shores were pretty thickly studded with buildings, many of which were religious houses; and as the fortifications were limited to the City Island, the castles and religious houses erected elsewhere were enclosed by strong walls to preserve them from spoliation. The enclosure was called a *close*; and the different "closes" were distinguished by the name of the house to which they respectively belonged.

Philippe-Auguste threw down the old city wall, and built another strongly flanked with towers on the two opposite shores. The new fortifications enclosed a space about four times as large as the *Cité*. The part on the north bank he called the *Ville*; that on the south bank the *Universit *.

Besides these fortifications, he made several other important improvements. For example, he paved the principal streets; constructed covered market-places; built cloisters round the cemetery of the Innocents; erected the old Louvre for the double purpose of a royal residence and a state-prison; pushed on the work of the cathedral called Notre-Dame, commenced by his father, Louis VII.; erected an aqueduct for supplying Paris with water; founded three hospitals, two colleges, and lazaret-houses in every town for the reception of those affected with leprosy, a disease imported into France by the crusaders, and apparently very general.

(1) Since its foundation by Philippe, the Louvre has been frequently enlarged, especially by Charles V., Louis XII., Francois I., Henri II., Henri IV., Louis XIII., Louis XIV., Napoleon I., and the present Emperor.

(2) Philippe was led to pave the city because "the stench which rose from the mud, when horses passed through the streets, was intolerable." The original pavement still exists; but so great has been the accumulation of soil since it was laid, that it is now eight feet below the surface.

(3) Notre-Dame was not in a state for religious worship for a hundred years after its foundation; nor was it finally completed till the reign of Charles VII., in the fifteenth century. The present emperor has beautifully restored it.

* Clovis resided in the Palais-des-Justice, Philippe-Auguste in the old Louvre, Louis IX. in the Bastille, Philippe VI. at Vincennes, Charles V. in the H tel de St. Paul, his immediate successors in the Palais-des-Tournelles, Charles IX. in the Tuileries, Louis XIII. in the Palais de Luxembourg, Louis XIV. at Versailles, Louis XVI. in the Palais-Royal, the President of the Republic in the Palais-de-l'Elys e, and the two emperors in the Tuileries.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS IN THE REIGN OF PHILIPPE II.

Titles. The rigid etiquette, which two centuries later trammelled every movement, was almost wholly unknown in the reign of the Great Philippe. Titles of honour rose no higher than to beausire and monseigneur [*mōn-sen -yur*] and even these were not hereditary. The lord of a castle was called the chatelan.

Public Banquet. When a grand banquet was given, besides the guests, crowds of troubadours with their lyres, troops of minstrels, jugglers, fools, rope-dancers, and mimics, assembled to amuse the company.

On such occasions, a kind of fair was extemporised outside the castle gate. Booths and tents were raised in an incredibly short space of time, and merchants and pedlars hurried thither with their wares.

In one booth would be cloth of gold and silver, velvets and silks, stuffs of all sorts, ermines, miniver, and other furs. Another would display silver cups, gold clasps, and other ornaments for knights and ladies. Others again would exhibit cutlery and armour: Danish battle-axes, casques of Poitiers, Cologne swords, Rouen hauberks, and so on.

The hubbub without and within was by no means measured. The laugh, the shout, and the call, mingled with numerous instruments, from the flute to the hurdy-gurdy, from the lyre to the bag-pipe, produced a perfect Babel of harsh sounds.

At the same time pennons, flags, and banners floated on the walls and pinnacles of the château; and crowds of gay dresses fluttered about in every direction. Such was a baronial "reception day" in the 12th and 13th centuries.

¶ The banquet hour on such days was four o'clock. It was announced by a band of minstrels richly dressed, who placed themselves before the great gate of the castle, and gave notice by horns that the tables were served.

All the guests immediately assembled in the great hall, where pages offered to each a silver basin and a fine napkin, to wash their fingers previous to the meal.

The trumpets again sounded, and the knights and ladies were ushered into the banquet-room.

These rooms were very large and lofty. They had no ceiling, but a roof similar to that of our country churches. They had neither columns nor pilasters, but the sides were decorated with armour, swords, spears, shields, battle-axes, maces, and daggers. Banners were hung in various places; and the floor was strewn with rushes.

The tables were covered with damask linen, and the benches with tapestry; the place of every guest was marked; and before each was placed a small round loaf of bread covered with a fine dinner-napkin, a silver spoon, and a knife.

Forks were unknown till the reign of Charles V., and even knives were not generally used in the 12th century, but the common girdle-dagger was used instead.

Wood platters and pewter trenchers were employed for plates, while the drinking vessels were of silver, horn, or earthenware. The wine and the water were served in silver, crystal, and earthen jugs of various shapes, representing dragons, castles, ships, men, or other fantastic devices.

The guests were distributed as now, gentlemen and ladies alternately; but the knight and his lady partner ate off the same plate and drank from the same cup.

When the feast was over, the minstrels blew a long loud flourish on their trumpets, and the guests retired to the park to hear the troubadours, many of whom were amongst the most noble of the knights present.

The troubadour accompanied himself on the *cithern*, a sort of guitar, or the *rote*, which went with a wheel and resembled the hurdy-gurdy. The "air"

which he sang was extremely simple, and the words were either sentimental or in celebration of deeds of arms.

Employment of Ladies. In the 12th and 13th centuries, when love was a duty and chivalry universal, young ladies were much more frank and open than they now are.

They were all taught leechcraft or the apothecary's art; and when a knight was wounded, a damsel would think it no disparagement to modesty to dress his wounds and nurse him tenderly till he was convalescent.

No doubt this intercourse often led to mutual attachment; but it does not appear to have been often abused by the chivalrous spirits of that romantic age.

A favourite employment of young ladies was embroidering sword-belts with threads of gold, weaving gold fringe for coats-of-arms, tracing symbols on banners, and decorating surcoats for favorite knights.

Knights. The knights went about the country in full armour. Not that they wore it all in their wanderings from place to place, but that they took it with them, and what they did not wear was carried by their 'squires.

Both plate and ring armour were common. The former was generally inlaid with gold, and the latter polished like glass.

Under the armour was worn a thick quilted jacket of silk called a *gambeson*, the colour being that of the knights' livery. The gambeson rose above the armour of the neck, so as to prevent its chafing the skin; and to prevent the pressure of the hauberk on the chest, a *plastron* or steel plate was worn under the gambeson, or between it and the hauberk.

Not unfrequently the armour was covered with a surcoat made of linen, silk, or fine cloth, and embroidered with the arms of the wearer; hence the expression *coat-of-arms*.

Those who had been to the Holy Land had a red cross embroidered on the shoulder of their surcoat, and crusaders wore a similar cross on front thereof.

The original object of the surcoat was to prevent the armour from being heated by the burning sun; but subsequently it relapsed into a piece of military foppery.

The helmet worn at the close of the twelfth century was a flat-topped steel cap, with a hoop of iron under the chin, and a grating over the face. This grating, called an *eventail*, moved on hinges like a door, and could be removed at pleasure.

When the knight thought proper to doff his casque he put on a velvet cap corresponding in colour to his gambeson, and ornamented with a jewel and plume. In some cases a hood was worn instead, not unlike a university hood, as it had a long peak which reached more than half way down the back.

When assembled in considerable numbers for the battle-field, nothing could exceed in splendour a party of chivalry. Robes of scarlet, ornaments of gold, fine furs and finer stuffs, were theirs exclusively by law. Their banners, their pennons, their polished or inlaid armour, their embroidered coats of arms, and their gaily decked horses, formed a mass of splendour which the present day could not equal.

Every knight was attended by his 'squire, and several attendants, amongst which were generally a troubadour and fool, tricked out in the most extravagant finery, and regarded as equals in rank and merit.

Weapons. The chief weapons of war at the time were tremendous double-handed swords, about five feet from point to hilt; the heavy battle-axe, mace, long lance, and shield. These were for knights alone. Their followers were armed with spears, bows and arrows, the recently invented cross-bow, and the partisan or double axe.*

* The serjeants-at-arms or royal body-guard carried gilt quivers and long bows; and in their right hand an immense mace, the head of which rested on their shoulder.

The **Horses** used by the knights were barbed or completely armed; but housings or long horse-cloths were not employed till a later period. The horses of the mounted archers were unarmed, except by an iron poitral or breastplate to resist a thrust. Even the archers themselves were only harnessed with a cuirass, steel-cap and buckler.

Houses. No tiles or slates were employed for roofs, but all houses were covered with thatch, in which grew not unfrequently lichens, moss, and flowering houseleek.

Window-glass and carpets were not wholly unknown, but were employed only in a few palatial mansions. In houses of inferior order the window opening was extremely narrow; and the floors were strewn with clean rushes every morning.

STATE OF LITERATURE IN THE REIGN OF PHILIPPE AUCUSTE.

In the 12th century when not one knight or baron in a hundred could either write or read, and when paper and printing were unknown, the literature was very limited. It was thought to be a large library that would fill a box of ordinary dimensions, and such a luxury was found only in a very few of the noblest mansions.

The light literature of the day consisted of songs, or romances in prose or verse, in which Charlemagne with his peers and paladins chiefly figured.

Some, however, which attempted to break up a new ground, recorded the deeds of imaginary heroes, and mingled together writers, philosophers of antiquity, and more modern personages in a strange medley; making them all knights or magicians; and arraying them in the costumes of the existing period.

With these romances, songs, pastorels, and so on, were sometimes to be found, manuscripts of greater pretensions, especially histories of the preceding sovereigns, such as Suger's history of Louis-le-Gros, but these were all written in Latin.

Philippe was passionately fond of romance, and gave such great encouragement to writers of marvellous adventures, that to this reign may be ascribed a large number of the wonderful tales about Arthur and his Knights, Charlemagne and his Paladins, Havelok the Dane, and King Horn.

§ LITERARY CELEBRITIES.

Christiens of Troyes (1122—1191), in the reign of Philippe-Auguste and his predecessor, wrote several poetical romances or *trouvères*, such as "Percival of Wales;" "The Knights of Lyons;" "William the Conqueror;" "Cliquet of the Round Table;" "Lancelot of the Lake;" &c. He is further famous for being the first to introduce varied metres into French poetry, which before his time was uniformly octo-syllabic, like Gay's Fables.

Somewhat later **Lambert-li-Cors** (*the Short*), began the metrical romance of "Alexander," in alternate lines of 12 and 13 syllables. **Alexandre of Paris** continued the same poem, as did Thomas of Kent, and several others.

The Macedonian conqueror is represented by these rhymers as a feudal lord, surrounded by his vassals, in all the splendour of chivalry. The characters are arrayed in the costume of the period, and are made to speak like knights and 'squires of the 12th century.

¶ There were three or four historians of the period whose names and works are still held in honour: g. e.

Rigord (1150—1207) the historiographer of Philippe-Auguste who began, in Latin, a life of his patron, continued by **William the Breton** (1165—1220). This work constitutes one of the received Annals of the French

nation. The Breton also wrote an epic poem in 12 books called "La Philippide" of no great merit, but still extant.

Villehardouin [*Veel-ar-dwah*] (1167—1213), who assisted at the taking of Constantinople (1204), has left behind him in old French a "History of the Conquest" of that city, which still enjoys a good reputation.

COSTUMES IN THE REIGN OF PHILIPPE-AUGUSTE.

The **King**, on state occasions, wore a wide tunic of rich purple silk, confined at the waist by a golden girdle, from which hung his sword of state. The neck and sleeves of the tunic were tied with gold; over his shoulders descended a mantle of crimson and sendal, lined throughout with ermine. The train of the mantle fell in broad and ample folds upon the floor.

On his head he wore a jewelled cap of crimson velvet, from under which the glossy waves of his long fair hair fell down upon his shoulders.

He was easy and graceful in manners, dignified and royal in carriage. His eagle eye glanced round the chamber, and saw every thing in a moment.

¶ The costume of the **Nobles**, towards the close of the 12th century, was truly regal. Their mantles were somewhat shorter than those previously worn, but their decorations were most gorgeous.

The borders of the tunics and mantles were indented. Stockings were worn as usual. The sandals were of purple cloth, fretted with gold, and bound with leg bandages. The gloves were embroidered at the wrist, and jewelled on the back. The head-gear was a cap or hood.

Hoods were of two kinds, *aumuces* and *chapérons*; the former were lined with fur, the latter were made of cloth or silk, but had no lining of fur.

The hair was curled with crisping irons, and bound with fillets or ribbons. Beards and moustaches were worn. Altogether the age was foppish and splendid.

¶ **Heralds** wore their many-coloured tabards; and exhibited on their breasts the arms of the province to which they belonged.

The *King-at-Arms* wore a sleeveless tunic of crimson, which opened in front and displayed a robe of violet velvet embroidered with fleurs-de-lis. On his head was a crown, and in his hand a baton.

¶ The robes worn by **Ladies** were less extravagant than they had lately been, as the enormous cuffs were no longer fashionable; but the sleeves were made tight, and terminated at the wrist. Round the waist was a rich girdle, from the left side of which hung a reticule or alms-pouch [*aulmonière*].

Green was a very fashionable colour, and a thin silk called sendal was generally employed for their lining.

State robes and mantles were splendidly embroidered. The wimple, a sort of veil or kerchief, which wrapped round the head and chin, and was bound on the forehead by a gold or jewelled fillet, was introduced about this time.

Short boots as well as shoes were worn by ladies, but the robe was made so long that only the tips of the toes were ever visible. Gloves were in general use.

LOUIS VIII. LE LION.

REIGNED 3 YEARS. FROM 1223 TO 1226. Contemporary with Henry III.

Married Blanche, daughter of Alfonso of Castile, god-daughter of Henry I. of England, and niece of Richard Cœur de Lion.

Issue, Louis his successor, Robert comte d'Artois, Alphonse comte de Poitou, Charles comte d'Anjou, Jean, and six others.

Isabelle, his mother, was a descendant of Charlemagne, and thus he united in his own person the two houses of Charlemagne and Capet.

Philippe-le-Bel, great grandson of Louis VIII., had a daughter called Isabelle of France, who married Edward II. of England; by which alliance our present queen can trace her descent from Charlemagne.

Louis VIII. was in his 36th year when his father died. Why he was surnamed the *Lion* nobody knows. Perhaps it was because he was born when the sun was in "Leo," or perhaps from adopting a lion for his device. Be this as it may, it is certain he was no lion either in body or mind. In the former he was puny and feeble, and in the latter wholly without energy or independence of spirit. His greatest praise is, that he was the son of Philippe the *Great*, and father of Louis surnamed the *Saint*.

The only events of his reign worth mention are the renewal of the war with England, and the scandalous crusade against the Albigenses.

War with England Renewed (1224). On succeeding to the crown, Louis-le-Lion commanded Henry III of England, as one of his vassals, to attend his coronation; but instead of obeying this summons, Henry sent to demand restitution of all the provinces taken from his father by Phillippe-Auguste.

This was quite sufficient to rekindle hostilities; and Louis at once proceeded to lay violent hands on those towns which still belonged to the English crown. Several were taken. Gascony and Bordeaux [*Bor-dô*] alone remained of all our magnificent possessions in France; and these also would have fallen into his hands, had he not absurdly abandoned this important enterprise, for the purpose of running down the inoffensive Albigenses.

Second War with the Albigenses (1226). To this he was prompted by Pope Honorius III., who called upon all the clergy and nobles of France to "purge the land of heretics."

His first enterprize was the siege of Avignon [*Av-een-yôn'g*], which capitulated after a stubborn resistance. He then marched towards Toulouse; but the weather was intensely hot, and the smell of the dead carcasses bred a fever in his army, which proved fatal to 20,000 of his men.

The king himself was attacked; and, being unable to prosecute his march, made his nobles swear allegiance to his eldest son, appointed Blanche regent, and died.

ST. LOUIS OR LOUIS IX.

REIGNED 44 YEARS. FROM 1226 TO 1270. *Contemporary with Henry III.*

Kingdom. In 1234 by *purchase* was added a part of Champagne, corresponding to the two departments called Marne and Aube.

In 1258, on the marriage of his eldest son, was added by *cession* the department of Gard.

He resigned to Henry III. of England Limousin, Perigord, Quercy, Agenois, and Saintonge.

Hence the kingdom still extended over 29 departments, though not all the same as in the preceding reign.

Married Marguerite, daughter of comte de Provence.

Issue, Louis, who died before his father; Philippe, his successor; Jean, surnamed Tristan; Robert de Bourbon, from whom descended the Bourbon dynasty; and seven others, five of whom were daughters.

History of this Reign. "Joinville's Memoires;" "Vies de St. Louis et de ses frères," by Guillaume de Nangis; Choisy's "History of France, from St. Louis to Charles VI.;" and Filleau's "Histoire de St. Louis."

Before the revolution the French Academy pronounced annually, on the 25th August, a panegyric on the royal Saint.

Louis IX. was only eleven years old when he came to the crown. He had been carefully brought up by his mother, who was entrusted with the regency during his minority.

Queen Blanche had a very vigorous understanding, was prompt and decided in action, highminded and dignified.

Her son Louis was one of the most virtuous of kings; upright and just, even to his own injury; benevolent and mild, but a strict administrator of justice; brave, but not cruel; pious, but not credulous; simple in manners, plain in dress, and at all times self-denying.

It is much to be lamented, that the superstitions of the time drew him into the vortex of religious wars, a fashionable madness injurious to his country, and fatal to himself. The same false zeal induced him to publish a penal edict against heretics; to establish in France the Inquisition; and to compel all Jews in the kingdom to carry a badge upon their breasts.

At the age of 19 he married Marguerite of Provence [*Prov-arn'ce*], who was only 12 years old; and not long afterwards, her sister Eléonore married Henry III. of England.

Battles of Taillebourg and Santes (1242). On attaining his majority, Louis IX. employed himself in establishing a more rigid economy of the public funds, and a stricter administration of justice.

In these useful reforms he was interrupted by the revolt of the comte de la Marche, who refused to pay him homage, and was sustained in his rebellion by the King of England.

Louis declared war against the insurgents, and won two victories in two successive days: one at the bridge of Taillebourg [*Tay-bour*], in the Lower Charente; and the other near the city of Santes [*Sarnt*]. The comte was pardoned by his noble enemy, and the king of England bound over to a truce for five years.

Sixth Crusade (1249). Not long after these victories the king fell ill, nigh unto death; and during his illness made a vow, if he recovered, to go to the Holy Land, and use his endeavours to wrest it from the Turks.

His mother and all his wisest counsellors protested earnestly against this project, but to no effect. He arranged his affairs, appointed his mother regent, took his pilgrim's staff and the sacred oriflamme, and with his wife and brothers started on "God's service."

He did not direct his course immediately to Palestine, but steered for Egypt, and effected a landing near Damietta. The inhabitants fled before him, and he took possession of the town without a blow.

It was his intention to march now upon Egypt; but owing to the inundation of the Nile, he was detained where he was for five months; at the expiration of which time he encamped before Mansoura, where he was surrounded by the Turks on all sides, and his camp destroyed by Greek fire (i.e. burning pitch or petrolëum).

In this desperate situation he gave the signal for battle, but victory turned against him; and he was taken prisoner, with a number of his knights, and two of his brothers (1250).

It is said that he paid the enormous sum of £300,000 sterling for the ransom of his brothers and nobles; and for his own, restored to the sultan the city of Damietta, saying, "the kings of France are not redeemed with money."

Having recovered his liberty, he departed for Palestine, under the hope of doing something worthy of his rank and character. He remained four years in the Holy Land, took the cities of Tyre and Cæsareâ, repaired the strong towns, redressed grievances, and redeemed from bondage above 12,000 christian captives; but was obliged to return sooner than he intended, in consequence of the death of his mother, who had been left regent in his absence.

The fifth crusade was commanded by Frederick II. of Germany, and the French had no part in it.

Seventh and Last Crusade (1270). At the close of his reign St. Louis undertook another crusade, accompanied by three of his sons and a vast number of his nobles. He disembarked near the ancient city of Carthage, and directed his first efforts against Tunis.

The hot vertical sun reflected by the burning sands, the want of grass and water, the pestilent exhalations, and the suffocating winds, bred a fever in his army. Soldier after soldier, and knight after knight, fell a victim to the pestilence. The king himself was at length attacked, and after three weeks suffering was carried off.

Thus ended the career of Louis IX. of France, not only one of the best of kings, but one of the most virtuous of men, who, 27 years after his decease, was canonized by Pope Boniface VIII.

LEGISLATION OF LOUIS IX.

§ 1. ESTABLISHMENT OF COURTS OF JUSTICE.

On his return from the Sixth Crusade St. Louis effected several important reforms: He put a stop to the practice of altering the standard of money;*

* Twenty-four of the barons had hitherto enjoyed the privilege of uttering money, and of course altered the standard to suit their own convenience. Louis IX., to prevent this great evil fixed the standard of every coin; and issued such a multitude from the royal mint, that he drove all other coins into disuse.

deprived the barons of their judicial power; abolished judicial combats; and decreed that every complaint and accusation should in future be the subject of legal discussion. Many other wise laws he enacted, to prevent the venality of justice, the harshness of creditors, and the extravagant rate of interest. The code, *Les Etablissements de St. Louis*, still exists, and is a standing proof of his legislative wisdom and even-handed justice.

The courts where causes were decided by discussion were termed *parlements*. St. Louis established only one of these crown courts, which had no fixed locality, but followed him wherever he went. Philippe-le-Bel was the first to fix the court to Paris. Subsequently, *parlements* were established in all the chief cities of the kingdom.

The "parlement" of St. Louis consisted of three high barons, three prelates, and nineteen knights, to whom were added 18 councillors or men learned in the law.

The lawyers, clad in long black robes, sat on benches below the high nobles; but as the nobles left to them the whole business of the court, they soon became the sole judges, and formed the nucleus of the present French Magistracy.

Great care must be taken in reading French history, not to confound the word *parlement* with our *parliament*, as the two institutions have no points of resemblance.

The English parliament is a general council of the nation, corresponding to the French States-General, in the *old regime*, and the National Assembly, National Convention, Legislative Corps, Chamber of Deputies, and so on, in the *new*.

The French *parlements*, on the other hand, were crown courts where councillors were allowed to plead, and where justice was administered in the king's name. The Paris *parlement* received appeals from all inferior tribunals, but its own judgments were final. It took cognizance of all offences against the crown, the peers, bishops, corporations, or high officers of state; and though it had no legislative power, had to *register* the royal edicts and ordinances before they became law.

The king had the right of presiding over his own law court; and when he did so, sat upon a sort of couch called a *lit de justice*. In such cases, he was allowed to enforce any edict he chose, and the court had no longer the option of refusing to register it. Such an edict was usually termed a "lit de justice" from the couch on which the king sat.

The Paris *parlement* was formally abolished by the Constituent Assembly in 1790.

§ 2. THE PRAGMATIC SANCTION OF ST. LOUIS (1268).

St. Louis furthermore signalized his wisdom and independence of spirit by his celebrated ecclesiastical ordinance, called the *Pragmatic Sanction*. The Latin word *Sanctio* means a decree or ordinance with a penalty attached, or in other words a "penal statute." The word *pragmaticus* means "relating to state affairs." Hence "pragmatic sanction" means a penal statute bearing on some important questions of state.

The term was first applied by the Roman emperors to those statutes which related to their provinces. The French appropriated the term to certain statutes which limited the jurisdiction of the pope.

Thus the pragmatic sanction of Louis IX. forbade the court of Rome to levy taxes, or collect subscriptions in France, without the express sanction of the king. It also gave plaintiffs permission, in certain cases, to appeal from the ecclesiastical to the civil court.

This important ordinance was to France what the famous "Constitutions of Clarendon" were to England. It secured the liberty of the people, and saved them from falling under the civil dominion of the court of Rome.

What is now generally meant by the "pragmatic sanction" is the arrangement made by the emperor Charles VI. in 1713, whereby the crown of Germany is made hereditary in the house of Austria.

FOUNDATIONS OF LOUIS IX.

Since pilgrimages had grown into vogue, it had been found that blindness had increased to a most frightful extent. In order to mitigate this calamity,

St. Louis founded a hospital for 300 blind inmates, and called it the **Quinze-Vingts*** [*Karns Var'n*].

He also built the splendid church of **Ste-Chapelle**, at once the most elegant and gorgeous ecclesiastical edifice in the world. This truly inimitable building was intended as a shrine for the crown of thorns, a piece of the cross, and some other relics given to St. Louis by the emperor of Constantinople. It has recently been most superbly restored by the present emperor of France.

The Sorbonne (1252). In this reign Robert-de-Sorbon founded the college called The Sorbonne, a society of secular ecclesiastics, who lived together in common, and devoted all their time to the study of theology.

This college, from the 14th to the close of the 17th century, enjoyed a European celebrity; its decisions were so respected, that they had the force of law in all matters of faith; and the society went by the flattering name of the *Perpetual Council of the Gallic nation*.

In the 17th century Richelieu restored and enlarged the buildings of the college; and his tomb in the chapel is one of the finest monuments in the world. During the Great Revolution the Sorbonne suffered, like all other ecclesiastical foundations. It is now used as the University of Paris, and its course of instruction embraces, besides theology, science and general literature.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF ST. LOUIS.

The reign of St. Louis was really an important literary epoch. It was then that Guillaume-de-Lorris [*Ghe-yome de Lor-ree*], published his *Romance of the Rose*; that Thibaut, the "Father of French poetry," both flourished and died; that Joinville wrote his admirable biography; and that Vincent-de-Beauvais compiled his *Cyclopedia*, under the title of "Five Mirrors."

Guillaume de Lorris (1235—1265) born at Lorris on the Loire (*Lwor*), was the most celebrated of all the early French Romancers. He wrote a poem of 4000 verses entitled the "Romance of the Rose," which bore away the palm from all his predecessors and contemporaries. He has been styled the French *Ennius*; and his poem, which for two centuries was reckoned the *Iliad* of France, still retains a considerable share of attention.

The Trouvères, in their romances, had not unfrequently described the adventures of some knight in quest of his lady-love, and had created an interest for their hero by giving him various obstacles to overcome. Guillaume de Lorris employed this simple plot to describe his wanderings and adventures in search of a rose. The rose, however, is not an ordinary flower, but the ideal of our ambition or love; and the *dramâtis personæ* are the passions and circumstances which aid or thwart us in our efforts.

Spencer's *Fairy Queen* and Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress* are allegories of a similar construction, and without doubt are in a measure indebted to the *Roman de la Rose*.

Plot of the "Roman de la Rose." The whole poem is supposed to be a dream. The poet in his dream is accosted by Dame Idleness, who conducts him to the palace of Pleasure, where he meets Love surrounded with all his retinue, such as Sweet-looks, Riches, Jollity, Courtesy, Liberty, and Youth, who spend their time in dancing, singing, and other amusements.

By this retinue the poet is brought to a bed of roses, where he singles out a flower, and attempts to pluck it; when an arrow from Cupid's bow stretches him fainting on the ground, and he is carried far away from the flower of his choice.

As soon as he recovers, he finds himself alone, and resolves to return to his rose. Welcome accompanies him. But Danger, Shame-face, Fear, and Slander, obstruct him at every turn.

Reason advises him to give up the pursuit, but he refuses. Whereupon, Pity and Liberty aid him in reaching his rose again, and Venus allows him to touch the flower with his lips.

In the mean time, Slander rouses up Jealousy, who seizes Welcome his conductor, shuts him up in a strong castle, and gives the key of the castle door to an old hag.

* Quinze-vingts literally fifteen-twenties, i.e. 300.

Here the poet is left to mourn over his fate, and to reflect upon the small payment he had received for all the dangers and difficulties he had encountered. And so the poem ends.

About half a century later, Jean-de-Meung added 18,000 additional lines as a sequel to the allegory.

Thibault [*Teb6*] (1210—1253), comte de Champagne, and afterwards King of Navarre, was the first to introduce into French poetry the alternate masculine and feminine rhymes,* and a more free and tuneful system of metres than had ever hitherto been employed.

Some 60 or 70 of his chansons are still extant. One of them, an "Exhortation to join the Holy Wars," is singularly full of deep feeling and devotion.

Sire de **Joinville** [*Zjwoin-veel*] (1223—1319) accompanied the "royal saint" in his first crusade; fought by his side; shared his captivity; and was appointed, on his return to Paris, to carry out the government reforms.

His *Memoirs of Louis IX.* is one of the best pieces of biography ever written. It is so full of naïveté, so fresh and natural, that the reader sees the great Christian king in living colours, just as one sees Charlemagne in the *history* of Eginhard, or the great Doctor in Boswell's *Johnson*.

PHILIPPE III. LE HARDI.

REIGNED 15 YEARS. FROM 1270 TO 1285. *Contemporary with Edward I.*

Married twice. Isabél, daughter of the King of Aragón, was his first wife; Marie, daughter of the Earl of Brabant, his second.

Issue. Four sons by Isabél, and two daughters by Marie.

The sons were Louis who died young; Philippe who succeeded to the crown; Charles comte de Valois, founder of the line of Valois, and father of Philippe King of Navarre; and Louis comte d'Evreux.

The daughters were Marguerite second wife of Edward I. of England, and Blanche.

Philippe-the-Daring was in the camp before Carthage when his father died. The very same day his uncle, Charles d'Anjou, entered the port with reinforcements; and succeeded in relieving the French army.

After some slight advantages obtained, peace was concluded on very advantageous terms: All the French prisoners were restored without ransom; and the King of Tunis paid down the estimated expenses of the expedition.

Philippe having concluded these arrangements, started for his kingdom; but the voyage home was full of disasters.

In the *first* place, he lost by a tempest eight of his largest ships, a multitude of smaller ones, and all the tribute money paid him by the King of Tunis.

In the *next* place, he lost his wife, who died on the voyage of a fever; and, when he landed in France, he had to disembark the dead bodies of five near relatives: that of his father, his wife, his son, his brother, and his brother-in-law Thibault II. king of Navarre.

¶ Thus ended the Crusades, which had agitated Europe for two centuries, and had destroyed at least two millions of men. Whatever

* In our language all nouns are *neuter*, but in French some are masculine and others feminine. As a general rule the feminine rhymes terminate in *e* or *es*, which though mute in prose, is pronounced in poetry. It is absolutely necessary, in making French poetry, to observe this arbitrary rule of the comte de Champagne.

indirect influences may have resulted from them, one thing is certain, they never accomplished the objects for which they were undertaken; for scarcely had Louis been buried and Edward returned to England, when the Holy Land fell again into the hands of the Saracens.

Titles of the French Kings.

The French have been singularly unhappy in their choice of the royal surnames, when designed to express any moral quality. Of course such titles as Handsome, Short, Long, Fat, Stammerer, and so on, referring to mere personal qualities, cannot now be questioned; but when anything is expressed which history can elucidate, scarcely one will bear the test. Louis VIII., a very feeble man both in body and mind, was surnamed *the Lion*; Philippe II., whose whole conduct was overreaching and selfish, *the Magnanimous*; Philippe III., the tool of Labrosse, *the Daring*; Philippe VI., the most unfortunate of all the kings of France, *the Lucky*; Jean, one of the worst of all, *the Good*; Charles VI., an idiot, and Louis XV., an infamous debauchee, *the Well-beloved*; Henri II., a man of pleasure, wholly under the thumb of Diane-de-Poitiers, *the Warlike*; Louis XIII., most unjust in domestic life, where alone he had any freedom of action, *the Just*; and Louis XVIII., forced upon the nation by the conquerors of Waterloo, *the Desired*.

MEMORABLE EVENTS IN THE REIGN OF PHILIPPE III.

Although the reign of Philippe III. is barren of interest, the period is marked by two or three events of considerable notoriety. It was in this reign that the French government in Sicily was overthrown; that titles of nobility in France were first conferred by letters patent; and that a general council was held at Lyons (1276) to reform the abuses of religion, and reunite the Greek Church to the Roman communion.

Sicilian Vespers (30th March, 1282). Manfred the usurper of the two Sicilies being excommunicated for the murder of his nephew, the crown was offered by the Pope to Charles d'Anjou, brother of St. Louis.

Charles retained possession of the kingdom for 14 years, when his cruelty and oppression gave birth to a revolt, headed by John of Procida, physician to the late king.

On Easter Monday, as the vesper bell was rung, the conspirators fell upon their oppressors unawares, and massacred every Frenchman in the island to the number of 8000, without regard to age, sex, or rank. Though Charles escaped, he died of vexation and chagrin about 16 months afterwards.

In this reign flourished three men of such extraordinary fame, that though they were not Frenchmen by birth, they require to be noticed, especially as they exercised a mighty influence upon all Christendom. The men referred to were Albertus Magnus, the Suabian, founder of the middle period of scholastic philosophy; Thomas Aquinas, the Neapolitan, a disciple of Albertus; and Roger Bacon, the Englishman, called the "father of modern philosophy."

PHILIPPE IV. LE BEL.

REIGNED 29 YEARS. FROM 1285 TO 1314. *Contemporary with Edward I. and Edward II.*

Kingdom, augmented by the province of Champagne and kingdom of Navarre, the dowry of his wife.

Chartres added to the crown by purchase in 1286; and Lyonnais (i.e. the departments of Loire and Rhône) by conquest in 1307.

Married. Jeanne, countess of Champagne and queen of Navarre.

Issue. Louis, Philippe, and Charles, all of whom reigned in succession and died without male heirs. His daughters were Marguerite, Isabella, and Blanche. The first married Fernando of Castile; the second was the "she-wolf of France," who married Edward II. of England; and the third died young.

Philippe IV. was only 16 years old when his father died. With him the kingly power attained its highest point; and with his three sons the dynasty expired.

He was surnamed *le Bel* for his handsome person, but was very unlike his grandfather in all that constitutes a good king. He was iracible and overbearing, selfish, covetous, and tyrannical; had recourse to the most iniquitous measures to supply his coffers, and was guilty of many acts of the grossest injustice. He fell out with England, made war upon Flanders, quarrelled with the Pope, and treated the Templars with severity and injustice.

War with England (1293—1298). Philippe IV. and Edward I. of England were drawn into a war through a brawl between an English and French sailor. The quarrel was taken up by both nations, each demanding and refusing satisfaction.

Philippe then cited Edward, as his vassal, to appear before him to answer for his contumacy; and as Edward refused to obey, confiscated Guyenne.

In the war which followed, the French landed in Kent, and burnt Dover; while the English made a descent upon Cherbourg, and destroyed it.

A peace was eventually brought about through the intervention of the Pope; and was the more readily agreed to, as Edward wanted to prosecute his war in Scotland, and Philippe to lay hands upon Flanders.

In order to promote a more friendly relationship, Edward I. married Marguerite, the French king's sister; and affianced his son, who was 24 years old, to Isabelle, Philippe's daughter, a girl only 7 years of age.

Philippe restored Guyenne to England as the dowry of his sister; and Edward consented to pay him homage for the fief.

War with Flanders (1299—1304). As soon as this treaty of peace was concluded, Philippe prepared to attack Flanders; and entrusted the enterprise to his brother Charles, who laid siege to Ghent (*Gak'ng*), where the count of Flanders resided.

The count surrendered; and the king invited him to Paris, under the most specious promises. But the old man had no sooner entered the capital, than he was seized, and thrown into the castle of the Louvre for life.

Flanders, filled with French soldiers, and under the sway of a French governor, was so taxed and insulted that the inhabitants rose as one man, and made a general massacre of their oppressors.

This outrage, of course, could not be overlooked, and Philippe sent a second army to punish the revolters.

The Flemings, nothing daunted, went out boldly to defend their liberty. A battle was fought at **Courtray**, in which the French

were defeated; and 4000 gilt spurs, such as were worn by knights, were gathered from the field.

This disaster roused Philippe to the utmost. He assembled a third army, which he commanded in person, and won the victory of **Mons-en-Puelle**.

His honour was redeemed; and instead of risking another encounter, very wisely concluded a treaty of peace; recognizing the independence of all that country which lies to the north of the river Lys (*Liss*).

Quarrel with the Pope (1300—1303). During the Flemish war, Philippe-le-Bel came to an open rupture with the Pope.

Boniface VIII., a haughty despotic pontiff, wanted to unite in his own person the supreme temporal as well as the supreme spiritual power of Christendom; and to arrogate to himself the suzerainty of the kingdoms of Europe. Philippe resisted; and Boniface thundered against him his anathema (1301).

The king, in order to strengthen his hands, convoked the States General, the first in which the *tiers-état* (*tears-ä-tar*), or representatives of the people, were recognized. Having read to them the Pope's bull, and burnt it to ashes in their presence, he demanded what course he was to pursue; whereupon, the whole assembly with one voice clamoured for resistance, and promised to support the king in upholding the independence of the crown.

The pontiff, with impotent fatuity, tried to terrify the rebellious nation by an interdict; but Philippe made himself master of his person; and Boniface, vexed, angry, and powerless, fretted himself into a fever of which he died.

Captivity of the Popes (1309—1377). Benedict IX., the next Pope, survived his elevation only a few weeks, when Philippe secured the vacant chair for one of his own creatures, Bertrand-de-Goth, who assumed the name of Clement V.

This had been done under the stipulation that Bertrand should stigmatize the memory of Boniface VIII.; assist in suppressing the order of Knights Templars; and consign to the king for five years the tithes of all the church property in France.

In order to carry out these conditions, and co-operate with his patron, the new Pope removed the Papal see from Rome to Avignon (*Av-een-yón'g*), where it continued for the space of 70 years.

Knights Templars Suppressed (1312—1314). The Knights Templars were a religious and military order founded in 1118 by some of the French crusaders, for the purpose of protecting pilgrims to the Holy Land.

Baldwin II., king of Jerusalem, gave them a house built on the site of Solomon's Temple, whence they were called Knights of the Temple.

They were bound by a vow of poverty, celibacy, and obedience; but donations of considerable amount poured into their coffers, and the profits derived from the holy wars rendered them the richest order in the world.

When Salâdin took Jerusalem from the Christians, the Templars quitted Palestine; dispersed themselves over the different countries of Europe; and greatly increased their influence, wealth, and reputation.

At one time they had as many as 9000 different lodges, the chief of which was at Paris. Their costume was a long white robe or mantle decorated with a red cross.

Prosperity greatly corrupted them. Their pride became unbearable, their impiety scandalous, and their vices so patent, that Philippe-le-Bel had a plausible excuse for suppressing the order, though doubtless his real motive was the appropriation of their enormous wealth.

The Grand Master was Jacques-Molay (*Zjark Mo-lay*). Him the king brought to a mockery trial for high crimes and misdemeanours. Of course he was found guilty, and condemned to be burnt alive over a slow fire.

The place of execution was the back of the garden wall of the royal palace, where the statue of Henri Quatre [*Cart'r*] now stands.

It is said, that while he was at the stake, he summoned the Pope in 40 days, and the king in 40 weeks, to appear before the throne of God to answer for his murder. Without vouching for the truth of this tradition, one thing is certain, that both died within the stated time.

Death of Philippe (1314). Philippe-le-Bel grew every year more arbitrary and oppressive. He levied enormous taxes; and when the revenue failed to satisfy his demands, had recourse to the miserable expedient of debasing the current coin.

He not only confiscated the property of the Templars, but also caused many Jews to be murdered, that he might lay violent hands upon their property.

His yoke was a yoke of iron. He was the most absolute of all the kings of France, and the only one who had hitherto succeeded in overawing the sovereign pontiff; yet was it under this reign that the rights of the people were first recognized: He admitted burghers into the States-General; sold charters to several towns; and granted titles for money to rich tradesmen.

Philippe-the-Handsome died in the 46th year of his age and 29th of his reign, recommending his son to "act justly, to show mercy, and live humbly with his God."

He abolished the right of females to succeed to landed property, founded the offices of Secretary of State and Admiral of France, and established the *Etats-Generaux* (*Atar Zjen-e-ro*) or General Estates.

SUMPTUARY LAWS OF PHILIPPE LE BEL.

§ 1. BEARING ON DRESS.

The costume in the reign of Philippe-le-Bel was very graceful. Gentlemen, except in camp, wore long tunics and cloaks. Ladies a high tight bodice, fitting the shape ; and over it an open robe trimmed with gold or fur.

The size of the cloak and robe, the breadth of the trimming, and the number of suits each person was permitted to possess, were regulated by law. The higher the rank, the greater the variety allowed, the larger the cloak and robe, and the broader their trimmings.

Hoods were universal ; but their size and shape were not left to the caprice of the wearer. The nobles wore large hoods hanging to their heels, like those of our universities. The common people, little sugar-loafed cowls, just big enough to fit their heads.

§ 2. BEARING ON DIET.

Philippe IV. legislated not only for the dress, but also for the diet of his subjects, fixing the hour, and restricting the number of dishes to be introduced at dinner and supper : No one was to have more than one soup and two varieties of meat at any one meal. The dinner hour was to be half-past eleven, and the supper half-past four.

It was customary, at this period, for people to eat from each others' plates ; and it was considered a mark of politeness for a gentleman to feed from the plate of the lady whom he handed down to dinner.

Something of this sort prevailed amongst the ancient Jews, who deemed it a mark of respect to present a piece of food from their own plate to a guest sitting at the same board.

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### PROGRESS OF ROYALTY FROM THE TENTH TO THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

Royalty had made a vast stride since the accession of Hugues-Capet (*You Cappy*). It now possessed a force infinitely superior to any other in the nation, mainly created by Louis-le-Gros, Philippe-Auguste, and St. Louis.

Louis-le-Gros lengthened its cords and strengthened its stakes by repressing a number of petty tyrants in and about his domains ; and by making it the guardian and protector of the people.

Philippe-Auguste reconstructed the kingdom, and gave it a nationality, by his foreign wars, the splendour of his court, and his efforts at civilization.

St. Louis impressed upon the government its judicial character ; made it a respector of rights, a lover of the public good, and an administrator of even-handed justice.

From this reign the *despotic* element began to develop itself ; and the overbearing tyranny of Philippe-le-Bel impressed itself strongly on the office with which he was invested. No longer content to guard and protect, he interfered with private and domestic matters, declared his acts to be of general application, and assumed dictatorial authority.

Much of this was effected through the bailiffs, seneschals, and judges, who were no longer feudal lords and independent gentlemen, but paid servants of the crown, removable at pleasure. It was by their instrumentality that the arbitrary monarch suppressed the Knights Templars ; stigmatized the memory of Boniface VIII. ; and struggled so successfully with the clergy. His lawyers were his tools, and "justice" was made to bear the onus of royal selfishness and rapacity.

At the death of Philippe IV. the scale turned again, and feudal aristocracy resumed for a time the ascendant. Woe now to the upstart lawyers! Enguerand-de-Marigny, one of the principal of them, was immediately seized and hung upon the most frivolous accusation. It was a sacrifice to aristocratic ascendancy, the vengeance of wounded pride repossessed for a time of the power it had lost.

#### PROGRESS OF THE PEOPLE, FROM THE TENTH TO THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

It is not a little remarkable that the liberty and influence of the people increased in the same proportion as royalty developed itself. When kings were mere feudal lords, the people were no better than serfs and slaves; but as kings grew kingly, the people rose in influence and independence.

This was because the king and people combined against their common enemy, the feudal aristocracy. So the people aided the sovereign to absolute power, and the sovereign conceded to the people immunities and privileges.

When Hugues-Capet (*You Cappay*) was elected king, the commons of France had no political status in the nation. They could acquire no property, contract no marriage without their lords' consent, make no bequest, inherit no possession; but were, with their wives and children, mere "chattels" of their master.

In the 12th and 13th centuries a mighty change took place. Louis-le-Gros set the example of emancipating towns by granting them "charters of community;" whereby they became independent, and were suffered to elect their own magistrates. His example was followed by others; and, by the 14th century, a vast number of towns were independent, and had risen to consideration, wealth, and eminence.

The Holy Wars co-operated to the same end. They broke down the line of demarcation between lord and vassals, and introduced more elevated motives of action, new wants, new fashions, and new ideas. Many new trades were introduced; many new sciences became familiar; many new marts were opened; and trade received an enormous impulse.

Amongst the most important innovations were the manufacture of paper from linen rags, the art of silk-weaving, improvements in dyeing, windmills, cane-sugar, Turkey wheat, saffron, indigo, mulberry trees, and a vast number of spices and perfumes, seeds and flowers, fruits and vegetables.

#### CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF PHILIPPE LE BEL.

The 14th century opened with a galaxy of brilliant names in almost every part of Europe. England had its Roger Bacon, Marco Polo, and Duns Scotus; Italy its Dantë and Flavio Gioia; Switzerland its William Tell; and France its Arnaud-de-Villeneuve (*Ar-no de Veal-nerve*), and Jehan-de-Meung, sometimes called the *Ennius* of France.

**Arnaud de Villeneuve** (1238—1314) was really an extraordinary man for the period in which he lived. He was at once a profound physician, chemist, astrologer, and theologian.

He may be termed the *Father of French Chemistry*; and discovered the several acids called sulphuric, muriatic, and nitric; was the first to obtain alcohol from fermented liquors, and to procure the spirit of turpentine by dissolving in alcohol the juice of pine-trees.

These were discoveries of real value; and have given the name of Arnaud-de-Villeneuve a place beside the most distinguished chemists of the world.



**Meung** (1260—1320), surnamed *Clopinel*, because he was lame and hobbled, was requested by Philippe-le-Bel to continue the "Romance of the Rose," begun by *Lorris* (*Lor-ree*); so, suppressing the verses which formed the *dénouement* of the original poem, he added 18,000 additional lines, in which he satirized with great freedom the priests and ladies of France. This continuation abounds in classical allusions, and introduces a fund of learning, but is deformed by bad taste, and fails in poetical inspiration.

#### The Three Sons of Philippe IV. le Bel.

**Louis X.**, surnamed *Le Hutin* (1314—1316), reigned two years. He was called *Hutin* because he was sent by his father against the "Hutins," a seditious set of people of Navarre and Lyons.

The only event of his reign worth mentioning is the renewal of the war with Flanders, to prosecute which he oppressed the people with taxes, and compelled the city serfs to purchase their manumission.

**Philippe V.**, surnamed *Le Long* (1316—1322), reigned six years, and occupied himself for the first four in regulating the internal government of his kingdom. He enfranchised the country serfs; ennobled several commoners; officered the militia from the regular army; appointed provincial governors; declared the crown-lands inalienable, and again fixed the legal standard of money.

On the other hand, he allowed the Inquisition to punish heretics, and he put to death with studied torments Jews, lepers, and sorcerers.

**Charles IV.**, surnamed *Le Bel* (1322—1328), reigned six years, and added the title of *King of Navarre* to that of King of France. He punished the Lombards or money-lenders for extortion, several corrupt and unjust judges, and all who violated the rights of private property.

At the instigation of his sister, he usurped the rights of Edward II. in Aquitaine; and furnished Isabelle with men and money to carry on war against her husband. He also detained as a hostage Prince Edward, when he was sent over to France to do homage for the French fiefs pertaining to the crown of England.

## WARS WITH ENGLAND. From 1339 to 1452.

### PHILIPPE VI. DE VALOIS,

Surnamed *Le Bien-Fortuné*, because he obtained the crown.

REIGNED 22 YEARS. FROM 1328 to 1350. *Contemporary with Edward III.*

*Kingdom.* The seigneur of Dauphiné having caused the death of his only son by letting him fall from a window, retired from the world; and sold all his possessions to Philippe, on condition that the eldest son of the kings of France should ever after bear the title of *Dauphin*.

Normandy was in possession of the English from 1346 to 1450, and Calais 1347 to 1558.

N.B. Auvergne, Touraine, Anjou, Maine, Berry, Valois, and Chartres were frequently given as appanages to sons, brothers, and nephews, during which time they were lost to the crown.

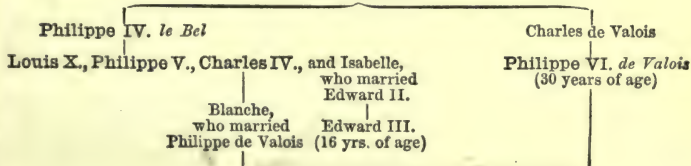
*Married twice.* First to Jeanne of Burgundy; and then to Blanche his niece, daughter of Charles IV. Blanche was 18 at the time, and Philippe 58.

*Issue* by his first wife: Jean his successor, Philippe duc d'Orléans, and Marie. By his second wife, Blanche.

*Favourite Residence.* Vincennes.

#### TABLE OF DESCENT OF PHILIPPE VI. AND EDWARD III.

Philippe III. *le Hardi*  
had two sons





**The Succession.** The three sons of Philippe-le-Bel died without male issue; consequently, the heir to the throne was either Edward III. of England or Philippe-de-Valois (*Val-wor*).

Edward III. was the *nephew* of the three last monarchs, being the son of Isabelle, their sister. Philippe-de-Valois was their *cousin*.

According to English law there could be no doubt as to the relative claims of these two kinsmen; but Edward owed his relationship to his mother, and by the Salic law of France women are passed over in the succession.

The moot-point therefore was this: Admitting Isabelle to be set aside in consequence of her sex, must her son be set aside also?

The friends of Edward argued, that as the preclusion of women from the throne was based upon their incapacity to lead armies to battle, the objection could in no wise apply to the male issue of the woman.

The advocates of Philippe pleaded, that when the fountain is cut off, the stream must be cut off also; and that a woman cannot possibly transmit to her offspring what she never possessed.

Whatever the merit of these arguments, one thing is certain, a dispute of this nature is never settled by an appeal to reason, but only by force of circumstances or by superior power.

Philippe had the advantage of being chosen by the States-General; but Edward had sufficient plausibility to satisfy his own partisans, and mentally resolved to dislodge his rival if he could.

The rash and half-insane Philippe, instead of conciliating his cousin, galled him to the quick by summoning him to France to do homage for the province of Guyenne.

In the cathedral of Amiens, therefore, in the midst of all the barons, Edward king of England was made to appear, without his crown, without even his sword and spurs, as the vassal of Philippe; and on bended knee to acknowledge him his superior lord.

The ceremony was performed, it is true; but the haughty young English monarch was not likely to forget it. He returned to England breathing hatred and vengeance; and lost no moment in maturing his plans for resenting the affront.

The bitter feelings which existed in the rival kings soon spread to the respective courts, from the courts to the armies, and from the armies to the peoples; and for five centuries the two nations continued in hostility to each other, nor is the effect of this long animosity even yet wholly obliterated. In France, especially, there are many who look upon England with an evil eye of hatred and jealousy; but happily the number is on the decline.

The Marquis de Boissy said in the French Senate no longer ago than March, 1861, "I avow that I have always sought to keep alive the resentment of France against England." *Times*, 7th March. A similar remark was made in the senate in 1864.

**THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR (1340—1453).**

**Edward** assumes the **Arms of France** (1336). The first thing that Edward did was greatly to increase his army and military stores; and to form alliances with the Duke of Brittany and Count of Flanders, two personal enemies of the French king.

He next prevailed on his two allies to proclaim him king of France, and swear fealty to him. At the same time he quartered the *three fleurs-de-lis*, with his own arms, on his seal and shield, a marshalling retained in the royal arms of England even to the reign of George III., when it was very wisely erased.

**Battle of Sluys** (1340). These preliminaries being made, he entered Flanders and laid siege to Cambray, but was obliged to decamp. He next advanced into Picardy, which he laid waste, but could never force Philippe to an engagement.

At sea the English were more successful. They surprised the enemy's fleet in the narrow creek of Sluys; forced it to an action; and obtained a decided victory. Philippe, in this battle, lost 230 vessels of war and more than 30,000 men. None of his courtiers durst inform him of this defeat; and it was not till his jester gave him a hint, that he was aware of his great loss. After the battle of Sluys, Philippe hesitated not to sign a truce with Edward for two years.

The French fleet at Sluys consisted of 400 ships, and the English fleet of only 240.

**Battle of Crecy** (26th August, 1346). The year following, the duke of Brittany died without issue; and two candidates for the dukedom were put forward: one supported by the king of France, and the other by the king of England.

The *protegé* of the French monarch was his nephew Charles-de-Blois (*Blwor*). The nominee of king Edward was Simon de Montfort, a descendant of that Simon so notorious for his crusade against the Albigenes.

While the contest was still pending, a tournament was given at Paris, which was attended by some of the partisans of Montfort, whom Philippe ordered to be seized and put to death. This being construed by Edward into an infraction of the truce, led to a renewal of the war.

Edward landed in Normandy with 40,000 English soldiers; and marched without opposition almost to the gates of Paris, pillaging and destroying whatever lay in his path.

At length Philippe, at the head of 100,000 men, went forth to meet him. Edward retired across the Somme, and fortified himself on a rising ground in the outskirts of Crécy.

Philippe pursued with forced marches. He was confident of success, and felt assured that the English were in flight. So the moment he caught sight of them, he gave orders to his Genoese archers to begin the attack.

In vain the archers craved a little rest ; in vain they pleaded that their bows were relaxed by the rain ; in vain they represented that they were hungry and tired. The command was repeated. They rushed forward with great bravery ; but were repulsed.

Philippe, furious at this disaster, shouted "Treason ! treason !" and his brother, the duc d'Alençon (*Dal-arn'-sô'ng*), trampled them under the feet of his cavalry.

This savage butchery ruined all. The English took advantage of the confusion it produced to pour down upon the enemy ; and a total rout ensued. The carnage was dreadful. As many as 30,000 French were left dead upon the field ; among whom were 11 princes, 80 nobles, 12,000 knights, the duc d'Alençon commander-in-chief of the army, and the kings of Bohemia and Majorca. The king, twice wounded, entered with only five attendants the neighbouring town of Abville (*Ab-veel*).

In this battle the Black Prince, only 15 years of age, greatly distinguished himself, and gained his spurs. There is a tradition also that the three ostrich feathers, with the motto *Ich dien* (I serve), was the crest of the king of Bohemia, slain by the Black Prince ; and that it was adopted henceforth by the princes of Wales in memory of this great victory.

Calais taken by the English (1347). One of the most fatal results of the defeat at Crécy was the loss of Calais, which became an English colony, and for 200 years left France open to our arms.

This strong fortress was besieged by Edward for eleven months, when famine compelled the governor to capitulate.

Edward, irritated by the long resistance, felt inclined to put all the townsmen to the sword without mercy ; but consented to spare them, if six men would come forward and offer their necks to the scaffold as a ransom for the rest.

Eustache de Saint-Pierre (*Use-tarsh dr San Pe-air*) and five others voluntarily came forward ; and with ropes round their necks, brought to the king the keys of the town. It was a melancholy spectacle ; and the brave queen, with her son the Black Prince generously pleaded for their lives, and obtained their pardon.

After this the English army entered without further difficulty ; and Philippe requested another truce, which was granted by Edward for the term of six years.

#### FROM THE LOSS OF CALAIS TO THE DEATH OF PHILIPPE-DE-VALOIS.

**The Plague of Florence (1348).** The year following, the frightful pest called the *black vomit*, or the *plague of Florence*, made its appearance in France.



It began in China, and spread into Turkey, Egypt, Greece, Italy, France, Germany, England, and Russia; nor did it stop, till it reached the borders of the Frozen Ocean.

In Russia it carried off the whole of the royal family; in France, a fourth of the inhabitants; in Paris alone, 500 a day; and in Europe, a third of the entire population.

The ignorant and superstitious people accused the Jews of having poisoned the rivers and fountains; and thousands of these unfortunate people were burnt or massacred.

**Flagellants.** These accumulated evils made many believe they had provoked the anger of God by unrepented sins; and that the only way of appeasing His wrath would be by extraordinary penance.

Accordingly, certain fanatics, called *Flagellants*, made their appearance in France; and wandered about the streets, half naked, macerating themselves with whips, to "atone for the sins of the nation."

They were severely censured by the church, and ceased to exist when the plague ceased; but re-appeared in Germany about a century later, when the pope issued his anathema against them.

**Gabelle.** The public treasury being exhausted by the wars, Philippe sought to replenish it by debasing the coin; exacting the 20th penny in all sales; and enforcing the tax called *Gabelle* [*Gar-bell*].\*

By this tax, all the salt made in France was to be brought to the royal warehouses, whence it was to be sold to the people at whatever price the government chose to affix.

This price was not uniform, as some provinces were allowed to purchase it at a lower rate than others; neither was it fixed, inasmuch as it varied according to the exigencies of the state; nor was it impartial, as the nobles or royal vassals were exempt from its operation.

This inequality rendered the tax hateful to the people, nevertheless it continued in force even to the Great Revolution (1789).

In all the latter reigns, it was *farmed*, like the other taxes; that is, certain persons paid into the treasury a fixed sum of money, and took to themselves what the tax produced.

These "publicans" or tax-farmers were very obnoxious. They grew extremely rich; and, of course, oppressed the people to make the revenue of their tax as large as possible.

When king Edward heard of the Gabelle, he called it Philippe's *Salic* law. The word *sal* is Latin for *salt*.

\* *Gabelle* is from the German *gabe*, a tax; but the word is applied in French history to the tax or monopoly on salt.



**Death of Philippe VI. (1350).** Philippe-de-Valois died in the 58th year of his age and the 22nd of his reign, having recently married his second wife Blanche of Navarre.

He was brave, but vindictive; athletic, but no soldier; presumptuous and overbearing. He thought to inspire awe by severity, and to win admiration by magnificence.

He was surnamed the *Fortunate*, because he was fortunate enough to obtain and keep the crown. His reign, however, so far from being fortunate, was an almost unbroken series of calamities.

The **Chateau de Vincennes** was, in the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries, a favorite residence of the kings of France. Philippe-de-Valois demolished the old château, and commenced a new one, which was completed by Charles-le-Sage.

The building was a large quadrangle with flanking towers, and consisted chiefly of a huge donjon or keep. What deeds of darkness that gloomy mansion concealed, what crimes and follies were daily enacted there, would be too disgusting and too revolting to relate.

## JEAN II. LE BON.

REIGNED 14 YEARS. FROM 1350 TO 1364. *Contemporary with Edward III.*

**Kingdom.** He was King of France and Regent of Burgundy. While Jean was a prisoner, the duchy of Burgundy lapsed to the crown, and was conferred upon Philippe-le-Hardi.\*

The king of England held, besides Calais, the provinces of Poitou, Aunis, Angoumois, Saintonge, Le Limousin, and Guyenne, over which he was an independent sovereign.

**Married,** first, Bonne, daughter of the blind king of Bohemia, who was slain at Crécy. She died before Jean succeeded to the crown. His second wife was Jeanne, widow of Philippe, duke of Burgundy. It was in consequence of this alliance that Jean [*Zjo'n*] was appointed regent of that province.

**Issue,** by his first wife, four sons and four daughters. The sons were Charles the dauphin, the first heir apparent of France who bore the title of duc de Normandie; Louis, duc d'Anjou; Jean, duc de Berry; Philippe-le-Hardi, duc de Touraine, and root of the new house of Burgundy (1363).

Philippe-de-Valois was succeeded by his eldest son Jean [*Zjo'n*], duke of Normandy, surnamed the Good [*le Bon*].

According to our present notions of goodness, he had no claim whatever to such a title; he was neither a good man nor a good monarch.

As a man, he was self-confident, rash, and vindictive; a great spendthrift, a luxurious liver, and a superstitious observer of fasts.

As a king, he was an unskilful warrior, a wretched statesman, and totally unacquainted with his duties; so that his reign is one of the blackest spots in the whole history of France.

It may well be asked how such a king came to receive so flattering a title; and the only answer which can be given is, that he kept good his promise to the English, and was very indulgent to his nobles.

\* It must be remembered there were two princes of France called Philippe-le-Hardi, one the son of Louis IX., born in 1245, and the other a son of Jean II., born in 1342.

In regard to the first: When set at liberty by the English, he left behind two of his sons as hostages; but the young princes violated their word of honour by running away; whereupon, Jean returned again into captivity of his own free will. This was certainly noble; and so was his remark to his subjects when he left the kingdom: "Though good faith be banished from the whole earth, it should reside in the bosom of kings."

In regard to the second claim: He began his reign by two edicts which made him very popular with his barons: the first was, that all noblemen should be allowed unlimited credit; and the second was the creation of the military order of the Star (*de l'Etoile*), a rival order to that of the Garter, by Edward III.

The order of the Star consisted of warriors wounded in battle, knights wounded in tournaments, and invalid noblemen. The knights of the Star made a vow never to retreat before an enemy more than a mile, after which they were to make a stand, and either be cut down or taken prisoners.

If these edicts were "good" or indulgent to the upper classes, other of his acts, like the former of these two, were most unjust and injurious to trade.

In the course of one year he falsified the coinage 18 times. He confiscated the money due to the Lombards and Jews, the chief merchants of France; and, having wasted the public funds, convoked the States-General to grant him fresh supplies by new taxes and imposts.

Having thus laid the foundation of the ruin of trade, he next plunged his kingdom into a war with England, which proved most disastrous and disgraceful.

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### WAR BETWEEN JEAN AND EDWARD III.

**Comte D'Eu Beheaded (1350).** Among the prisoners who fell into the hands of the English during the late wars, was the comte D'Eu, lord High Constable of France.

This high officer had been permitted by Edward to return to Paris on his parole, in order to collect money for his ransom. No sooner, however, did he reach the capital, than Jean [*Zjo'n*] ordered him to be seized as a traitor, and beheaded.

Edward was extremely angry at being thus balked of his ransom; and an opportunity soon presented itself of shewing his resentment.

**Assassination of La Cerda (1354).** At the death of the comte D'Eu, Jean conferred the constable's staff upon Don Carlos de la Cerda, a Spaniard, whom he created count of Angoulême.

This appointment gave great offence to Charles-the-Bad of Navarre, Jean's son-in-law, who openly shewed his displeasure by murdering the don. He was cited before the peers to answer for his conduct, but Jean [*Zjo'n*] pardoned him.

This was extremely foolish, as it shewed that he wanted either the power or the courage to punish him; and from this moment for many years he proved one of the most troublesome traitors of France.

**The Bloody Feast of Rouen (1356).** Now follows an act of cowardice and treachery almost without parallel:

The young Dauphin gave a grand banquet at Rouen (*Roo-on'g*) to his private friends and the leading nobles of the state, to which his brother-in-law Charles-the-Bad was invited.

While the guests were seated at table, Jean entered the banquet-room with a numerous escort: and, seizing the king of Navarre, shook him violently, exclaiming, "Traitor, thou art not worthy to sit at table with my son!" Then, turning to his escort, he added, "Take him hence! By St. Paul I swear, I will neither eat nor drink while the traitor liveth."

At this, the 'squire of the Navarrese starting up, drew his sword; and Jean [*Zjo'n*] commanded him also to be arrested.

The Dauphin threw himself at his father's feet, imploring him to desist: "Ah, sire," said he, "how art thou dishonouring me! What will be said when this proceeding is known? Will not all the world believe that I invited my brother-in-law to my table in order to betray him?"

"Be silent, sir!" replied the king. "They are traitors!" Then seizing an iron mace from one of the men-at-arms, he struck another of the guests between the shoulders, exclaiming, "Out, proud traitor! by the soul of my father, thou shalt not live!"

Four of the guests were seized, and beheaded on the spot. Royal dignity saved the king of Navarre, who was shut up in the Tower of the Louvre; from which, however, he was released after the battle of Poitiers.

This act of violence greatly incensed the kinsmen of the outraged nobles, who immediately joined the ranks of Edward III. of England, acknowledged him king of France, and paid him homage for their fiefs.

**Battle of Poitiers (1356).** Edward of England now openly avowed himself the champion of the injured nobles; sent a formidable army into Normandy; and counselled his son, the Black Prince, to carry fire and sword into the very heart of the kingdom.

The bold young prince proceeded forthwith to ravage Auvergne (*O-vairn*), the Limousin, and Berry; and king Jean vowed to combat with him till death, as soon as ever he could encounter him.



An opportunity was not long delayed. The French monarch assembled a large army, and overtook the Black Prince in the neighbourhood of Poitiers.

Famine was beginning to be felt in the prince's army, which was very small, amounting in all to not more than 8000 men; of which 2000 were horsemen, 2000 archers, and the rest mercenaries picked up amongst the vagabonds and adventurers of the south. In the French host, which numbered 60,000 men, were the king, his four sons, 26 counts or dukes, 140 bannerets, and two cardinal legates.

The Black Prince fixed his camp on a hill covered with hedges, bushes, and vines, amongst which he concealed his archers; and, in order to render his position inaccessible to the enemy's cavalry, he surrounded it with waggons and palisades.

The French began the attack; but a shower of arrows was discharged from ambush, and threw the attacking body into confusion. The troops which followed were disordered; and the vanguard gave themselves to flight.

The English ambuscade now starting from concealment, rushed down upon the main army; a panic spread on all sides; and victory was certain.

The loss of the French in this battle is almost incredible. The knights fought till they were either taken or slain; and all the flower of the French chivalry perished on that day.

The king, bareheaded and wounded, remained to the last; and rather than quit the field was taken fighting by the Black Prince, and carried prisoner to London. He was treated with great respect; confined for two years in the palace of Savoy, in the Strand, and thence transferred to Somerton Castle, in Lincolnshire.

**Treaty of Bretigny (1360).** At length his ransom was agreed upon, and the conditions signed at Brétigny, near Chartres.

It was stipulated that Edward should renounce all claim to the French crown; that he should retain Calais, and be the independent sovereign of Poitou, Aunis, Angoumois, Saintonge, the Limousin, and Guyenne; that he should receive £366,000 in money; and that 40 hostages should be given him, till these conditions were fulfilled.

**Jean Returns into Captivity (1364).** Among the hostages sent to Edward were two of the royal princes, the duc d'Anjou and the duc de Berry, who were treated by the English monarch with princely liberality. The only restriction laid upon them being, that they should show themselves in Calais every fourth day.

The young princes, however, broke their parole and fled to Paris. Their father implored them to return, but they refused. Whereupon Jean [*Zjo'n*] surrendered himself a prisoner to redeem his honour.



Scarcely had he arrived in England when he fell ill of a fever, and died at the age of 45. King Edward accorded him a magnificent funeral; and his body was subsequently removed to France, and interred in the abbey of St. Denis.

During the captivity of Jean, a wax taper was placed in the church of Notre-Dame, and kept burning till his return. The taper, which was six miles long, was coiled like a rope round a large wheel.

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### MARCEL'S REVOLT (1357—1358).

Upon the captivity of the king at the battle of Poitiers, his eldest son Charles was appointed Regent; and a States-General was immediately convoked to deliberate upon the present crisis.

The Assembly demanded that the king of Navarre should forthwith be set at liberty; that all the ministers of the crown should be dismissed; and that 4 bishops, 12 knights, and 12 burgesses, should be constituted into a council to assist the young prince.

The States-General was then prorogued; but, as the Dauphin required money to carry on the government, he called another Assembly, in which Robert-de-Coq, bishop of Laon (*Lar'n*), and Etienne Marcel, city provost, made themselves conspicuous.

They promised the Regent sufficient subsidies provided he appropriated no part to his own personal uses; appointed to no state office, and pardoned no atrocious crime, for money; made no alteration in the value of the coinage; and compelled all tax-collectors to render an account of their receipts.

The Dauphin promised to comply with these terms, and 36 commissioners were appointed to see them carried out, and to administer the finances.

The prince soon found himself crippled by these commissioners; so he summarily dismissed them, and determined to reign alone.

The States now began to be alarmed for their liberty; and applied to Charles-the-Bad, king of Navarre, to take their part against the Dauphin.

The Navarrese instantly repaired to Paris, where he was received with acclamation; the Dauphin, on the other hand, gathered round him the old nobility; and both prepared for war.

At this juncture Marcel induced the Parisians to revolt; and the revolvers wore, as a badge, a hood or *chaperon*, half red and half green, with an enamelled clasp under the chin. Even women affected the same colours in their dress, without which it would not have been safe to appear in the streets.

Followed by several of his partisans, the city provost forced his way into the chamber of the young prince, while he was holding a conference with two marshals proscribed by the States. Angry words

ensued ; the two marshals were slain ; and the Dauphin escaped the same fate only by promising to further the views of the insurgents.

In order to give assurance of his sincerity, he threw over his shoulders a red and white hood ; went with the provost to the Hôtel-de-Ville ; addressed the populace ; and publicly declared that the two marshals slain were traitors to the people and had merited their fate.

No sooner, however, did he find himself free, than he assembled a convocation of nobles, who clamoured for vengeance on the insolent citizens.

Marcel foresaw the storm, and prepared to meet it. He proclaimed the king of Navarre captain-general of the Paris revolvers, shut the gates of the city ; and placed the capital in a state of defence.

The Dauphin at the head of 7000 lances marched to Paris, and encamped under its walls. Terms of capitulation were agreed to. But when Marcel went to open the gates, one of the followers of the prince struck him with a battle-axe, and killed him.

The death of the provost was ruin to the insurgents. The Dauphin entered the city in triumph, and signalized his success by a host of executions.

Marcel was somewhat bull-like in appearance, but not disagreeable. His forehead and eyes indicated intellect, but all the lower part of his face was earthly and heavy.

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LA JACQUERIE. (1358).

While the Parisians were in revolt, the peasantry of France rose in rebellion also.

They had long been weighed down by oppression, and treated as the scum and offscouring of the earth. The nobles robbed and wronged them ; the soldiers pillaged and insulted them ; the citizens despised them as serfs and bondsmen.

Though their dwellings were burnt to the ground ; their wives and children outraged ; their cattle driven off for plunder ; and their crops ravaged or destroyed ; there was no one they could look to for redress.

The measure of their grievances was full, when the disaster of Poitiers taught them that their oppressors were not invincible ; and gave them encouragement to combine for redress and vengeance.

The villeins or peasantry, familiarly called at this period "Jacques" [*Zjark*] or "Jacques Bonhomme," chose for their leader a serf like themselves named **Caillet** [*Ki-yea*], the Jack Cade of France.

He was a young man in every way qualified for the purpose : Well educated ; of great natural genius ; skilled in arms, eloquent, keen sighted, brave, and of gigantic strength. Handsome in person ;

with the voice of a Stentor, an iron constitution, inexhaustible activity, and an enthusiasm which infected all with whom he came in contact.

Caillet soon succeeded in gathering together some 20,000 of the peasants, whom he led from castle to castle, and town to town, massacring the inmates, burning the houses, and giving up all the spoil as plunder to his followers.

The insurrection, called *La Jacquerie* [*Lar Zjark-ke-ree*], commenced in Beauvoisis, spread over all Picardy, and infected more or less the whole length and breadth of the kingdom.

Every thing gave way before it. The nobles had no time to organize a resistance, and the regent was occupied in defending himself against Charles-the-Bad of Navarre.

Even if the nobles had received due warning, they would have been equally powerless; because they were so divided among themselves, that it would have been difficult to find three in all France striving for the same object.

The whole nation was in fact torn into shreds by contending factions. Each castle stood isolated in its interests; and each baron rejoiced in the misfortunes of his rivals.

Of all the people in the land the serfs only were united, and obedient to the voice of one man; it is not, therefore, to be wondered at that their success was marvellous. They were uneducated, desperately poor, thirsting for revenge, and bound by no laws of chivalry and honour; and it is not to be wondered at that they were vindictive and cruel.

Every gentleman they encountered was murdered without mercy. Even women and children were butchered or dishonoured. Castles were burnt to the ground; towns were left desolate; fruit trees were cut down for fuel; and nothing escaped, except the houses of the priest and the parish church.

After having destroyed some 30 fortified places, Caillet [*Ki-yea*] led his gang to the strong city of Meaux [*Mo*] which was betrayed into his hands by the mayor.

Here the duchess of Orléans and 40 or 50 ladies of rank had shut themselves up for security; and it was in the hope of murdering these ladies, or taking them captives, that the city was attacked.

The rebels being admitted into the town, laid siege to the castle where the ladies were assembled. They had planted their mangönels to batter down the gates, when an English nobleman, called the Capal-de-Buch, with 40 followers came to the rescue.

He instantly commanded the gates to be thrown open, and the 40 horsemen fearlessly sallied forth. The serfs were panic-struck; fled in every direction; and 7000 of them were slain or trampled to death in the narrow streets.

Caillet [*Ki-yea*] escaped ; but falling into the hands of Charles-the-Bad, whose co-operation he had craved, his head was cut off by a sword.

The insurrection which had lasted for six weeks, with Caillet's death was extinguished. It was followed, however, by a pestilence and famine which continued for three years, and completed the disasters of this sad regency and reign.

STATE OF FRANCE IN THIS REIGN.

The state of France in this reign was most disastrous. Robbery, pillage, murder, and almost every other crime, being committed with impunity. The whole land was infested with such a complication of evils that it was dangerous to appear abroad, nor much less to remain at home.

(1) There were the *Lepers*, who infested the kingdom, especially the banks of the rivers and streams.

(2) Then there were the *Jews*, who combined with any one whose object was to annoy the Christians, as the Christians had always been foremost to annoy the Jews.

(3) Next came the *Free Companies*, a heterogeneous gang of Jews, Navarrese, English, and lawless natives, banded together for the sake of plunder.

(4) The English, who were posted in every part of France, as Bayonne, Bordeaux, Dauphiné, Normandy, Picardy, and even in the Faubourgs of Paris.

(5) The next plague-spot was Charles-the-Bad of Navarre, as lawless as any of the rovers, restrained by nothing in heaven or earth, when his own interest or pleasure was concerned.

(6) To all these grievances must be added the jealousy of the nobles, which kept the state in a perpetual ferment, and multiplied to an incredible amount the armed retainers.

(7) Lastly, there were the city and rural insurgents, whose open revolt occupied only a small portion of the reign ; but the spirit which led to it had long existed, and the evils which followed it by no means ceased when the rebellion itself was extinguished.

A contemporary has left a very graphic and mournful picture of the effect produced by these combined evils : "The country," he says, "appears every where to be laid waste by fire and sword. The fields are untilled, and the houses in ruins, except indeed such as are patched up into fortresses. Paris itself is forlorn and desolate. The best streets are green with weeds ; and the highways over-run with brambles. I have passed through street after street without meeting a creature ; and when, perchance, I saw one, his face was sad and cast down."

The rustic laboured in the field with terror, expecting an enemy at every turn ; and the shepherd or herdsman fled at the approach of a stranger, leaving his flocks and herds to the care of his dog.

Few peasants ventured to sleep in their cabins for fear of robbers ; but all who could, betook themselves to boats, which they moored in some lake or river for security.

Amid such general distrust, industry of course could receive no encouragement ; and where we now see the hamlet or homestead, was then the haunt of the free-booter, the deer, or the wild boar.

PARIS AND THE PARISIANS IN THIS REIGN.

Paris. The city of Paris at this period, was inferior in extent to many provincial towns in our own times, and very far inferior to most of the capitals of Europe.

Only a few of the main streets were paved. All were so narrow that not more than three horsemen could ride abreast through any of them ; and every bye-street was filled with ordure and filth, which were never removed except when the rain swept them into the Seine [*Sain*].

The houses, for the most part, were mean wooden houses, but here and there towered amongst them some princely castle, magnificent abbey, or highly decorated church.

The **Parisians**, even to the present day are very early risers, much more so than the tradespeople of London.

The butchers are the first to open shop. This they do at about three o'clock in the morning, and close for the day at the same hour in the afternoon.

Next come the bakers ; then the early eating-houses ; then the shops in general ; and by seven in the morning, all the tradesmen of Paris may be said to be astir.

In the 14th century before any shop was open, the Deathsman went round with a little hand-bell, to announce the deaths which had occurred since the day preceding ; and call on all good Christians to pray for the repose of their souls before they left their chambers.

The Deathsman was followed by the Bath-touters, who went about crying that the hot baths were ready ; and exhorting the people to make haste before the water got cold.

The butchers, bakers, and milkmen, with the vendors of fish, fruit, and vegetables, followed next, in much the same order as they do at present ; only there were very few shops in those days, and almost all tradesmen were accustomed to hawk their goods about the streets.

The favourite *fruits* were medlars, plums, apples, and pears. The favourite fruits at present in Paris are melons, grapes, strawberries, and peaches.

The favourite *vegetables* were leeks, chervil, purslain, cress, garlic, and shallots. Cress, garlic, and shallots are still great favourites ; but potatoes, cauliflowers, cabbages, and salad vegetables, share with them the popular favour.

In the 14th century garlic, made into a paste, was usually eaten with bread. It is still employed with most meats as a condiment, and is not unfrequently eaten as a root.

Of the itinerant tradesmen, one of the most strange to our usages was the tailor, who went about the streets with needle and thread to repair any accidental rent or lost button. There are, in Paris, however, even to this day persons who haunt the streets, ready to take the grease from a coat-collar, while the passenger stops a moment in some convenient place at hand.

Another custom, now wholly discontinued was that of standing at the house-door to proclaim to the passers-by the sickness, loss, or calamity of the inmates, in order to bespeak their alms or prayers ; but even to the present day it is customary to announce a death to all the friends and acquaintances of the deceased, soliciting their prayers for the soul's repose.

The streets of Paris, in the 14th century, were filled with beggars of every class and condition. At the present day street-begging is not allowed ; nor is any street-cry or street-music permitted after nine o'clock at night.

Besides what we now call beggars, there were swarms of begging friars and begging scholars, nuisances which exist no longer in that capital.

The scholars were certainly treated with extraordinary severity, and are described as "pale and haggard, with neglected hair, and tattered clothes." In all schools, *rods* were a regular and important item of the school expenses.

Petrarch, the great Italian poet, who visited Paris in the 14th century, gives some very lively descriptions of the manners and customs of the French in that period; and from what he says of the army, we are not at all surprised that it was so frequently defeated by the English.

"When you enter their camp," says he, "you might fancy yourself in a tavern. The soldiers are eating, drinking, and revelling, wholly without control. If the trumpet sounds to arms, the men obey or not, just as they please; and resemble a flight of bees driven from a hive, more than a disciplined army. They fight not for love of country, but for vanity, money, or caprice. How then could they be expected to stand against a brave and warlike people, trained by such master-spirits as Edward III. and the Black Prince?" (*see p. 201*).

MILITARY COSTUME OF THE PERIOD.

There were several novelties in this reign in the military costume. The crested helmet was reserved for the lists, and in war the visored bascinet was adopted. This light helmet was so called from its resemblance to a basin.

The magnificent jupon or short close coat, emblazoned with the wearer's arms, and the sumptuous military belt, distinguish this period.

By the close of the reign plate armour was very general. It was adopted because the weight of the chain-mail was so great that the knights sometimes sank under it, and were sometimes suffocated with the heat.

The new steel-back and breast-plate enabled the wearer to dispense with the hauberk and plastron, while the jupon was much lighter than the surcoat previously worn. These improvements were of Florentine origin.

The various pieces for the limbs, worn during this reign, were the *brassards* or elbow armour, the *vantbraces* or armour for the arms, the *cuisse*s or *cuissarts* for the thighs, the *greaves* or steel gaiters for the legs, and the *sollerets* or overlapping plates for the feet.

The gauntlets were leather, but the backs were furnished with overlapping plates, and the knuckles armed with knobs called *gads*.

The horse or charger was completely covered, so that nothing could be seen of it except the feet and fiery eye. He was buried beneath his war harness, which was in turn covered with a *housing* or horse-cloth highly ornamented.

Jean Buridan (1300—1360), the scholastic doctor, known by his "Dilemma of the Ass between Two Hay-stacks," is the only literary celebrity of this reign.

The question of the day was the *Freedom of the Will*. "If the will," said Buridan, "is latent till it is acted upon by something from without, then a hungry ass placed exactly between two hay-stacks of equal size and attractiveness, would starve to death, because there would be nothing to determine its will to go to one stack rather than to the other."

CHARLES V. LE SAGE.

REIGNED 16 YEARS. FROM 1364 TO 1380. *Contemporary with Edward III. and Richard II.*

Kingdom. He recovered from the English all their vast possessions in France, except the port-towns of Calais, Cherbourg, Brest, Bordeaux, and Bayonne.

In order to defend his kingdom from Spain and Italy, he made his brother Louis (duc d'Anjou) governor of Languedoc. And in order to defend it against Germany and the Netherlands, he confirmed to his youngest brother Philippe-the-Daring the dukedom of Burgundy conferred upon him by his father.

Burgundy. This duchy consisted of Bourgogne, Auvergne, Boulogne, and Artois. Philippe-the-Daring married Marguerite, only daughter of the count of Flanders, whereby he added to his duchy Flanders, Rethel in Champagne, Nivers in Nivernais, and Franche-Comté.

Married Jeanne, daughter of the duc de Bourbon.

Issue. Charles who succeeded him, Louis duc d'Orléans, and several daughters.

Residences. Vincennes and the Louvre.

Charles V., surnamed *the Wise*, was 29 years old when he ascended the throne. He had already governed France for nearly eight years, but nothing in his regency foreshadowed his future greatness.

He entered on his reign without money and without an army. His subjects were reduced one half by war, famine, and pestilence; the nation was overrun by brigands; and powerful enemies threatened him on every side.

The kingdom was in a state of bankruptcy, and on the point of dissolution. Without, all was dark and gloomy; and there was nothing within on which he could build his hopes.

The nobility despised him for his feeble frame and unwarlike disposition; the middle class hated him for trying to keep them down; he was too poor to hire mercenaries; and too much contemned to make alliances.

This weak, sickly, and unpopular young man proved, nevertheless, the regenerator of his country. He reconquered the provinces lost by his father, re-established order in the kingdom, replenished the exhausted coffers, made his name honoured, and restored the tottering state to vigour and prosperity.

This was done principally by his great sagacity in appreciating men and circumstances. He was the first monarch who had the discretion of committing the management of affairs to wise councillors and able generals.

Hitherto it had been deemed essential that the king should be always on his charger leading his subjects to battle. Charles V. thought otherwise. He rarely left his palace at Vincennes; but there he sat watching events, and directing them for the public good.

Though he never commanded his armies in person, he was most happy in his choice of such men as Duguesclin and Clisson; and took diligent care that their armies should be well provisioned and regularly paid.

His ministers were diligent and sober-minded. Neither too exalted to work, nor too haughty to take advice. He treated them with the utmost courtesy, but never petted them into favourites. They enjoyed his entire confidence, but he always remained their master.

He had no less sagacity in keeping-under the clergy, without provoking them to opposition. He was always in agreement with the Pope, but set his face like a flint against the least encroachment.

On the whole, his reign is a bright oasis between the two most

disastrous periods of French history ; and his policy gives a lesson to kings, which it would have been well if his successors had more faithfully imitated.

His Civil Policy. (1) He discontinued the ruinous practice of falsifying the coinage, according to the exigencies of the state. He resisted the imposition of imposts and new taxes ; conciliated the Jews and Lombards, the sole possessors of great wealth ; and encouraged the arts and manufactures, learning and science.

He was himself one of the best educated men in Europe ; and in order to encourage literature greatly enlarged the royal library of Paris. His father had founded it by the bequest of 20 volumes, but Charles enlarged it by the gift of 900, a prodigious number at that period. Most of these books were upon theology, astrology, medicine, and law, but some were poetry, and a few others history.

(2) One of the ordinances, which has rendered the name of this king memorable, is that which fixed the majority of kings at the age of 14.

(3) Another which does honour to his name is that whereby he armed justice against royal interference ; forbidding the *parlement* to alter a decree even from an order bearing the royal seal.

(4) For the accommodation of the courts he gave up his royal residence in the Isle of Paris, henceforth called the Palace of Justice ; and it is here that all the different law courts, except indeed the Tribunal of Commerce, have ever since been united.

Having resigned his Island palace to the courts of law, he made the Louvre his chief residence ; and there his successors for nearly 300 years continued to reside. Louis XIV. removed to Versailles, and Louis XV. with his successors to the Tuileries, where the present emperor dwells.

The general history of this reign will be better understood by dividing it subjectively rather than chronologically, showing how he disembarassed himself first from the Navarrese, then from the Free Companies, and lastly from the English, all of whom threatened him with ruin when he ascended the throne.

(1) THE NAVARRESE TROUBLE SURMOUNTED (1364).

When Philippe-le-Bel married Jeanne, queen of Navarre, the kingdom of his wife was united to France.

The two brothers of Philippe by the same mother were Charles comte de Valois, and Louis comte d'Evreux. The former was the founder of the Valois dynasty ; and the son of the latter married Jeanne, only child of Louis X., from which union sprang Charles-the-Bad.

Now the kingdom of Navarre, not being subject to the Salic law, when Philippe-de-Valois succeeded to the crown of France from failure of male issue, he was obliged to resign Navarre to the daughter of Louis X., whose heir was Charles-the-Bad.

If Charles V. died without issue, Charles-the-Bad would be the nearest heir to the kingdom of France; and the prospect of uniting the two crowns, induced the Navarrese to foment interminable disturbances in France.

While the Wise Charles was still Regent, the Bad Charles formed an alliance with the English, and encouraged their pretensions to the several provinces to which Edward laid claim.

He even attempted to poison the Regent; and it is thought that the feeble health and shattered constitution of Charles-le-Sage was to be attributed, in a great measure, to this cause.

This was the Navarrese trouble which threatened to disquiet the reign of Charles-le-Sage. An unscrupulous pretender to the crown, whose constant aim was to foment rebellion in order to serve his own ambitious purposes.

The very year that the Wise Charles was proclaimed king, his cousin of Navarre joined some rebels of Burgundy who tried to wrest that dukedom from the crown. Duguesclin was sent to quell the rebellion. The two armies encountered each other at **Cocherel**, near Evreux [*Ev-reux*]; and victory turned against the rebels (1364).

The news of this victory revived the hopes of France; eight weeks afterwards the two cousins signed a treaty of peace; the Navarrese trouble was surmounted; nor did Charles-the-Bad ever again disturb the peace of the kingdom of France.

Cocherel will not be found on the maps, as it is only a very small village containing about 300 inhabitants. Evreux is in the department of Eure, and Cocherel is seven miles to the east of Evreux.

(2) FRANCE RID OF THE GRAND COMPANIES (1367—1369).

What were termed the Free or Grand Companies were simply troops of adventurers that desolated France in the reign of Jean [*Zjo'n*] and his son Charles.

After the battle of Poitiers, Edward III. disbanded his German mercenaries, who being without employment, formed themselves into bandits under some daring leader, and spread themselves abroad as a desolating scourge.

What was to be done to rid the country of these lawless ruffians? That was the question, which Charles solved with inimitable sagacity.

The kingdom of Castile was at the time under the sceptre of Pédro surnamed *the Cruel*, who had poisoned his wife Blanche de Bourbon, murdered his brother Frederico, and attempted the life of his natural brother Henrique of Transtamàrë.

Henrique applied to the king of France for aid; and Charles, under the plea of avenging the death of Blanche, took this opportunity of purging the kingdom of the Free Companies, which he enrolled under the command of Duguesclin, and sent into Spain to fight against Pédro.

Duguesclin chased the tyrant from his throne, and made Don Henrique king in his stead.

Pédro, driven from his kingdom, applied for aid to the Prince of Wales, who willingly espoused his cause; and, by promises of high pay and preferment, induced the brigand soldiers of Duguesclin to desert. Pédro was restored, and Henrique saved himself by flight (1368).

After a time, Duguesclin was sent again into Spain with a new army. He encountered Pédro at **Montiel**, in New Castile; utterly defeated him, and even took him prisoner.

The captive tyrant was now brought into the general's tent to receive his sentence. The moment he entered, he burst from his guards, seized his brother by the throat, and would have strangled him, had not Henrique struck him with his dagger, and killed him (1369).

Thus ended this unnatural contest; and thus was France delivered from the Grand Companies. Many of the rebels were slain in the wars, and those who survived enrolled themselves in the armies of Edward the Black Prince or of don Henrique of Castile.

(3) THE ENGLISH SPOILED OF THEIR FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

(1370—1377.)

Charles V. having concluded peace with Navarre, and rid his kingdom of the Free Companies, next turned his thoughts to the provinces in the hands of the English.

Edward III. was, at the time, in declining health; and the valiant Black Prince in the last stage of consumption; so that no more favourable opportunity could possibly present itself.

He first fomented a revolt in Gascony. The rebels threw themselves under the protection of France. And Charles cited the prince of Wales before the chamber of peers, to hear the complaint of the revoltors.

The Black Prince, of course, took no notice of this citation. So Charles declared the fiefs forfeit; and sent a common menial to England to announce their confiscation to the sick king.

Edward III. was too ill to avenge the insult in person, but sent over the duke of Lancaster with a brilliant army to punish the revoltors.

Duguesclin was dispatched to oppose the duke. Charles strictly

enjoined him to avoid an open fight. He was to harass the foe by skirmishes ; to prick them off from ambuscades ; to fall upon stragglers at the fording of rivers, the confines of woods, and the suburbs of towns ; to annoy them in every possible way ; but on no account to venture upon a pitched battle.

Duguesclin followed to the letter these wise instructions ; and dogged the duke's army from Calais to Gascony, where it arrived exhausted, destitute of provisions, and weakened by disease.

In the mean time, the Black Prince died ; and Edward III., on the verge of the tomb, had just time enough to sign a treaty of peace, before he followed his noble son to the grave.

Richard II. succeeded his grandfather in England ; but all the possessions he inherited in France were a few scattered sea-ports, such as Calais and Cherbourg, Brest, Bordeaux, and Bayonne (1377).

HABITS AND CUSTOMS.

(1) Of the **King**. We can glean from contemporary historians and poets a pretty faithful picture of the manners and habits of the times : We know that the king rose at six, attended matins at seven, dined at eleven, attended vespers at three, and retired to bed for the night at sunset ; and there is every reason to believe that these habits were in accordance with the general habits of the day.

After matins, the king gave audiences ; after dinner, received his ministers ; and after vespers, devoted himself to his family.

He dined off one single dish, but in this was not followed by the nation. It was customary for the well-to-do to have three dishes for dinner ; but the health of the king was so delicate, that he observed the greatest abstemiousness.

He dressed with very great simplicity, in a long dark-coloured robe, turned up with black velvet, and confined round the waist by a *cordelière*,* the tassels of which fell to his feet.

Contrary to the custom of the times, he wore neither sword, dagger, nor any other distinctive mark of nobility. His only decoration being a small gold circlet of *fleurs-de-lis* round his black velvet cap.

His hair was light-coloured, and cut square over his forehead in token of high birth. His beard was chestnut ; his eyes blue ; his face placid and benignant ; and his whole demeanour grave, sedate, and meditative. He was very fond of dogs and hawks ; and was rarely seen without two large hounds at his side, and a falcon on his wrist.

(2) Of **Ladies**. From the *Romance of the Rose* we gain considerable insight into the foibles of the age. We there meet with several exhortations to both men and women which startle us, but which would have no point unless they referred to existing habits.

In this allegory the poet rebukes gentlewomen for their arrogance and pride ; and advises them in future to make a rule of returning a salute even from inferiors.

He recommends them not to scamper about the streets ; nor to turn round and stare at persons passing by ; nor to stop at private windows to pry into the house ; but to walk orderly and sedately along, especially when going to church.

* A *cordelière* [*cor-da-le-air'*] is a rope-girdle such as the Franciscans wear.

He censures them for jesting and giggling at mass; and adds, that those who can read should take their psalter with them; and those who cannot should learn the prayers by heart, that they may follow the officiating priest.

The poet furthermore says, that it is becoming in a lady to be very neat in her person; to keep her nails short and clean; not to talk too loud at dinner; not to indulge in a horse-laugh; and not to grease her fingers at meals.

He tells them to wipe their lips on the table-cloth, but not their nose as the custom of many is. Never to steal, nor tell wilful falsehoods. When they visit friends not to bounce all at once into the room, but to announce their approach by a slight cough, or few words, or by shuffling of their feet, in order that they may not surprise their friends before they are prepared to receive them.

(3) **Gentlemen** come in for their share also of censure and advice. The poet especially ridicules peaked boots, terminating at the toes with a sharp point like a bird's bill, and lengthened out behind to resemble a claw. As man, he says, is not a bird, why should he vainly attempt by dress to resemble that to which he bears no likeness.

The rest of the costume seems to have undergone a favourable change. Heretofore the gentry had worn long flowing robes, and hoods hanging down their backs like those of clergymen. Now both hood and robe were abandoned, especially by the younger men, who assumed instead a short jacket fitting their figure and displaying their form.

However, even at this early period the French were famous for change, and for running to extremes. Sometimes their dresses were inordinately long, at another as absurdly short; now they were extremely tight; and anon as unreasonably loose.

INSTITUTIONS, INVENTIONS, ETC., IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES V. LE SAGE.

(1) The body-guard of the French kings was composed of Scotchmen. St. Louis was the first to raise this corps, which consisted of 24 men; but Charles V. increased it to 100, and called it his *Cent-garde*.

(2) Besides enlarging the royal library of Paris, Charles-le-Sage had the Bible translated into French. He also reduced the number of fleurs-de-lis in the royal arms to *three*.

(3) He built the royal chateau of St. Germain, although his favourite residence was the castle of Vincennes* on the banks of the Seine.

(4) During this reign theatrical entertainments were introduced into France: The famous bastille was built by Aubriot provost of Paris, who was the first person confined there as a prisoner. Spectacles were invented. And three clocks were introduced into public buildings in France.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES LE SAGE.

Duguesclin (1314—1380) Lord High Constable of France, was certainly the most celebrated person in this reign. Not that he had any pretensions to literary merit, for he could neither write nor read, but that his victories rendered a most substantial service to his country, and constitute the chief glory of Charles surnamed the Wise.

* This château was a favourite retreat of the French kings in the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries. Philippe-Auguste inclosed it with a high wall; St. Louis administered justice there under the oak-trees of the park; Philippe-de-Valois demolished the old castle and commenced the new château, which was finished by Charles-le-Sage. From the reign of Louis XI. it was used chiefly as a state prison.

He was twice taken prisoner; once at Auray, when the king paid the brave Chandos £5000 for his liberation; and again at Navaretto, when he himself fixed the price of his ransom at the enormous sum of £14,000.

When the prince of Wales, whose prisoner he was, asked him how a poor knight could furnish so vast a sum of money, Duguesclin replied, "The spinning maidens of my country will earn my ransom with their wheels, if I can raise it in no other way."

It is said by French historians that the wife of the Black Prince, out of honour to this brave Breton, contributed half the amount of the ransom, and that the people of Brittany subscribed the rest.

After Charles V. made his treaty with England he seized upon Brittany in order to unite it to the crown, but the Bretons rose as one man to resist the annexation, and the king charged Duguesclin with instigating the insurrection.

The brave old soldier, indignant at this charge, sent his sword to the king, and threw up his office.

He was of middle height, with a large head, broad shoulders, and legs bowed from being constantly on horseback. He had a vulgar, but not unpleasant face. His eyes were intelligent, and his manners urbane.

Oliver de CLISSON succeeded Duguesclin as Lord High Constable, and retained that office for 12 years.

CHARLES VI. LE BIEN-AIME.

REIGNED 42 YEARS. FROM 1380 TO 1422.

Contemporary with Richard II., Henry IV., and Henry V.

Kingdom. Henry V. virtually king of France.

Burgundy. Jean-Sans-Peur, son of Philippe-le-Hardi duke of Burgundy, succeeded in 1404. His dukedom comprised Holland in right of his wife, Flandre, Artois, Boulogne, part of Champagne, Bourgogne, Auvergne, and part of Nivernais, equal to about ten modern departments. Jean-Sans-Peur being assassinated at the instigation of the dauphin, was succeeded in 1419 by his son Philippe-the-Good.

Married Isabeau of Bavaria.

Issue. Charles his successor, and two other sons who died before him. Of his five daughters Isabelle married Richard II. of England, and afterwards the duc d'Orléans; Jeane married John de Montford duke of Brittany; Catherine married Henry V. of England, and afterwards Owen Tudor of Wales; and Marie was a nun.

Chief Residence.—The Palais-des-Tournelles.

FIRST PERIOD OF THE REIGN. (FROM 1380 TO 1388.)

The reign of Charles VI. may be termed the most disastrous of French history. None was more barren of great men, none was so full of bad ones.

The king was a *minor* for the first eight years; and the contentions of the dukes of Anjou, Berry, Burgundy, and Bourbon, brought about the beginnings of troubles. For the last 30 years he was *insane*.

The imbecility of the king, the selfish ambition of the several regents, the profligacy of the queen, and the pleasure-seeking frivolity of the young dauphin, all combined to aid Henry V. of England in his attempts upon the crown; and the country, involved in civil wars, laid waste with fire and sword, reduced to a state of utter anarchy, and threatened with complete ruin, was but too glad to seek a refuge in the powerful crown of our English monarch, who was at length appointed Regent, with a promise of succeeding to the throne.

Insurrection of the Maillotins [*My-yo-tah'n*] (1382). The four uncles of the boy king disputed the regency, but the duc d'Anjou was ultimately entrusted with that important office.

The very first act of this unprincipled noble was to seize upon the public treasure, for the purpose of securing to himself the kingdom of Naples, bequeathed to him by the late queen; and, in order to make good the funds thus appropriated, he imposed a tax upon bread.

The Parisians resisted this exaction; rushed tumultuously to the arsenal; and, arming themselves with the *maillotins* or iron mallets, murdered the tax-gatherers and liberated the prisoners.

After a time the riot was quelled; and the duke departed for Naples, where he and his whole army perished from fatigue, privations, and disease (1384).

Battle of Rosbecque [*Roce-beck'*] (1382). The next regent was the duke of Burgundy, who also used his power, as his brother had done, for his own private ends.

He had married the heiress of the earl of Flanders; but, since the marriage, the earl had been deposed, and a republican form of government had been established.

The duke of Burgundy induced the young king of France to espouse the cause of the deposed earl; and Charles thought this a good opportunity for reaping a little military glory. So putting himself at the head of his army, he marched into Flanders, and gained a great victory at Rosbecque [*Roce-beck'*], with which he was not a little elated.

The Flemings had advanced in a compact mass, like a herd of wild boars; but when the French with their long lances charged them, being unable to expand, they were stifled by thousands. The carnage was dreadful; 26,000 perished on the field; the towns of Flanders, given up to plunder, were pillaged and destroyed; and the inhabitants massacred without regard to either age or sex.

The Parisians Chastised (1382). The victorious army marched back to Paris to punish the Parisians for revolt and sympathy with the Flemings. The citizens, wholly unconscious of the king's intention, had prepared a military fête in his honour, and went forth in holiday trim to welcome him.

Charles, who was only 14 years old, ordered them back to their houses, and then entered the city like an angry conqueror. For several days he observed a profound silence as to his intentions; but at length scaffolds were erected, and 100 of the richest citizens executed.

A heavy fine was imposed upon the city; and the Parisians were deprived of their franchise and corporate privileges.

Many other cities were treated with similar harshness, amongst

others, Rouen [*Roo-on'g*], Reims [*Rar'nce*], Châlons [*Shallôn'*], Troyes [*Troy*], Sens [*Sance*], and Orléans. The king's uncles confiscated the wealth of all these cities, but squandered it on their own reckless extravagance, leaving the public treasury utterly exhausted.

Flanders again Revolts (1384). As soon as the French army was gone, the garrison left in Flanders indulged in every kind of insult and atrocity against the vanquished.

The indignation of the people knew no bounds; and the city of Ghent [*Gah'ng*] formed an alliance with Richard II. of England, who sent an army to its aid.

Charles proposed terms of peace; but the count of Flanders rejected his overtures, and was stabbed to the heart with a dagger by the duc de Berry.

Flanders now belonged to the duke of Burgundy in virtue of his wife, and all further hostilities ceased on both sides.

England threatened with Invasion (1386). The young king was next persuaded by his uncles to invade England; and a formidable army of 40,000 men was assembled in Flanders for the purpose.

Every knight provided himself with a man called a *pillard*, for the sole purpose of collecting pillage for him; and, in order that the troops might be protected from the weather, an enormous tent called a *cité* was constructed, under the direction of Oliver-de-Clisson the Lord High Constable.

This monster tent, which took to pieces, would enclose a space of 8000 square feet, and required 72 vessels to convey it across the channel.

When all was ready for sailing, the king was wasting his time in dissipation. When the king arrived, he had to wait for his uncle the duc de Berry. And when the duke arrived, the king changed his mind and gave up the expedition. The army was disbanded; the stores were pillaged; and the "monster tent," having drifted to the mouth of the Thames, became a prey to English mariners.

Thus ended the threatened invasion of England in the reign of Charles VI.; and the pioneer army sent to Edinburgh to aid the Scotch against the English was thoroughly beaten.

SECOND PERIOD OF THE REIGN. (FROM 1388 TO 1393.)

The Regency Terminated (1388). When the king was 20 years old, he announced to his uncles his intention of taking the government into his own hands. He recalled several of his father's old servants; revoked numerous unjust laws and oppressive taxes; closed the gambling houses; and established through the length and breadth of the kingdom shooting grounds for the practice of the long and cross-bow.

It was during this brief period of his reign that he obtained the name of *Well-beloved*; and truly he showed a *wish* to rule his people with justice, and win their affections.

Insanity of Charles VI. (1392.) These happy presages were soon, however, overcast. The princes who had been deprived of place and power entertained a rooted hatred to the new ministers of the crown, and resolved to circumvent them.

There was, at the time, a nobleman of ancient family named the Sire de Craon (*Krar'n*), who had accompanied the duc d'Anjou to Naples, but had been banished from the court of the Well-Beloved for his intrigues and debaucheries.

The duc de Bretagne easily persuaded this nobleman that his disgrace was due to the Lord High Constable; and, acting on this persuasion, Craon waylaid his supposed enemy and stabbed him.

The wound was not fatal; but the king insisted that the assassin should be delivered up to the hands of justice; and, as the duke refused to comply, marched into Brittany with a large army to punish him.

As the king was traversing the forest of Mans, a maniac rushed suddenly towards him, and, seizing his horse's bridle, exclaimed, "Go no further, thou art betrayed!"

The guards drove the man away, and the king in deep silence pursued his march; but his reverie was soon broken by an accident: One of the retinue inadvertently struck the helmet of the king's squire; Charles heard the noise of the blow; exclaimed, "Treason! Treason!" and putting spurs to his horse, attacked the officers of his body-guard, and slew all that came within his reach.

He was evidently mad; and his uncles, the dukes of Berry and Burgundy conducted him bound to Paris.

THIRD AND MOST DISASTROUS PERIOD OF THE REIGN. (FROM 1393 TO 1422.)

Bad as the Duke of Burgundy undoubtedly was, Orléans who assumed the regency next, was still worse (1404). The misery of the people then rose to its full height. Contributions were ruthlessly extorted from the poorest poor, and even from the hospitals; and the levy squandered in dissipation. The king himself was so neglected that he was devoured by vermin, and often left a prey to hunger and thirst.

This state of things was sure to provoke resentment; and in the third year of his regency, the hateful duke was assassinated by a band of hired assassins.

The murder caused considerable commotion; but Jean-sans-Peur (*the Fearless*) the new duke of Burgundy, boldly acknowledged that he himself had instigated it.

What was to be done? Sans-Peur was cited for the crime, but

his advocate boldly maintained that the murdered duke was the enemy of the kingdom, and that his client deserved the public thanks for his patriotic conduct.

The voice of the nation was in his favour; the duke was acquitted by simply asking pardon of the king; he was greeted everywhere with acclamations, and became all-powerful; but alas! he employed his power no better than his predecessors.

The Armagnacs and Bourguignons (1407). On the assassination of the Duke of Orléans two factions were formed; one favouring the Orléanists, under the leadership of his father-in-law, the count of Armagnac; and the other under the conduct of Jean-sans-Peur, duke of Burgundy.

The former, called Armagnacs [*Ar-man-yak*], from their leader, wore as a badge a St. George's cross on a white scarf. The latter, called Burgundians, wore as their cognizance a St. Andrew's cross on a red scarf.

The Armagnacs were favoured by the princes, the court, and the nobility generally; the Burgundians by Paris and the University. Both parties called in the English to their aid, and gave them as fees large portions of the kingdom.

Sans-Peur, being upheld by the Parisians, resided in the capital; arrogated to himself the regency; and proscribed the leaders of the opposition.

Armagnac [*Ar-man-yak*], in order to dislodge him and punish the Parisians, enrolled an army of fierce Gascons; marched to Paris; and ravaged the environs with wanton cruelty.

The Cabochiens [*Kabô-she-a'ng*]. In the mean time Jean-Sans-Peur armed the journeymen butchers and skinners to the number of 500, and placed them under the command of Simonet-Caboche, a skinner.

This gang went sometimes by the name of *Cabochiens* from the name of their leader; and sometimes by that of Skinners (*écorcheurs*) from their trade. Their badge was a white hood.

Their conduct was most atrocious: They plundered the city; imprisoned whom they liked; massacred all who resisted them; kept the people in constant terror; and even assumed legislative authority. They compelled the doctors of the Sorbonne [*Sor-bonn*] to co-operate with them; besieged the dauphin in his palace; rudely reviled him for his licentious conduct; and compelled him to adopt the *white hood*.

At length the Parisians, wearied of their tyranny, took up arms against them, and delivered the dauphin from their hands. The duke of Burgundy fled from the city; and the Armagnacs remained in the ascendant.

The king was now made to take the oriflamme and march against Sans-Peur, who was compelled to submit; after which, this party-strife of eight years duration was brought to a close, or rather yielded to a danger which threatened all alike with ruin.

Battle of Azincourt (25 Oct. 1415). While France was thus torn to pieces by civil factions, Henry V. succeeded to the throne of England, and deemed it a fitting opportunity for renewing the pretension of Edward III. to the French crown.

He debarked at *le-Havre* [*ler Harv'r*] with 36,000 men, and invested HARFLEUR, which surrendered at the end of a month. From Harfleur he advanced without opposition to Azincourt; but the heat was intense, and the men suffered so severely from dysentery, that not more than 10,000 succeeded in reaching the village, and even they were weak and worn out.

The common danger brought the nation to its senses. The oriflamme was unfurled, and an army of 60,000 men placed under the command of comte d'Albret [*cônt Dal-bray*] the Lord High Constable.

The count committed the great mistake of marshalling his forces on a spot too small for deploying them. It was wet and marshy besides, so that the foot-soldiers sank to their knees in mud.

The English were the first to begin the onset. The French cavalry, confident of success, rushed forward to meet them; but were received with such a storm of arrows that they took to flight, and threw the first line into disorder. The English archers now took their bill-hooks and hatchets; broke into the enemy's ranks; put the whole army to rout; and committed the greatest havoc. The victory was complete. As many as 10,000 French were slain, among whom were the constable and six princes or dukes. The dukes of Orléans and Bourbon were taken captives.

This was a greater triumph than even Crécy or Poitiers; but Henry was too weak to prosecute his advantage, and therefore returned to England with his prisoners.

Massacre of the Armagnacs (1418). The duc d'Orléans was kept prisoner for 25 years, but his captivity did not weaken the faction to which he belonged.

The comte d'Armagnac [*cônt Dar-man-yak*] was appointed Constable of France, and his term of office was one of terror. He caused a multitude of the Burgundians to be drowned in the Seine [*Sain*], and forbade the Parisians to bathe in the river, lest they should discover the extent of his iniquity.

The dauphin was an active Orleanist; and it was by his suggestion that the Queen, who had made herself infamous by her vices, was banished to Tours [*Too'r*]; but Isabeau, having succeeded in eluding

her jailers, joined the Burgundians ; and from this moment the rival faction rapidly declined.

Soon after the queen's escape, a traitor opened the gates of Paris to the Burgundian faction. A terrible massacre ensued ; the comte d'Armagnac with 18,000 of his followers were slaughtered in the streets. The ferocity of the Red-Scarfs was wholly without parallel ; and the distress of the nation was heart-rending :

No king capable of preserving order, no patriots willing to stand in the gap, no money, no trade ; the land laid waste by civil factions, famine and pestilence decimating the population, the streets streaming with blood, and every man's hand against his fellow, what else was wanting to fill up the measure of distress ? Only one thing, a foreign enemy at the gate ; and that one thing was not long delayed. Henry V. had already landed in Normandy, and made himself master of Rouen [*Roo-on'g*].

Jean-Sans-Peur Assassinated (1419). At length the dauphin tried to bring about a reconciliation. The leaders of the two factions met at Montereau bridge ; but while the duke of Burgundy was kneeling before the prince, an officer in the suite struck him with a battle-axe and slew him.

Treaty of Troyes (1420). His son Philippe-the-Good, to avenge his death, in concert with the queen, offered the French crown to Henry V., who was to marry the princess Catherine.

The nuptials were performed at Troyes [*Troy*], where Henry and the Well-Beloved signed the famous treaty, whereby the kingdom of France, at the death of the reigning monarch, was to devolve in perpetuity upon Henry and his heirs.

This arrangement was favourably received by the Parisians, and solemnly ratified by the States-General, convoked in the capital, and presided over by the king in person.

The young dauphin, condemned by the *parlement* for the murder of Sans-Peur, wandered about the southern provinces as a fugitive.

The death of Henry V. the year following, and of Charles the Well-Beloved a few weeks after, changed the whole aspect of affairs, and opened up to the young prince an entirely new destiny.

It is not a little remarkable that almost all the nations of Europe were at the same time cursed with weak and worthless princes :

England with Richard II., one of our worst monarchs ; *Germany* with Wincellaus, a prince brutified by intemperance ; *Navarre* with Charles surnamed "the Bad ;" *Naples* with Jane I., the murderess of her husband ; the *popedom* with Urban VI. and Clement VII. who anathematized each other, and caused the "Great Schism of the West ;" and *France* with Charles-le-Bien-aimé, an imbecile madman.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES VI. LE BIEN-AIMÉ.

No period of French history is more barren of great characters than the disastrous reign of the Well-Beloved ; the only two worthy of mention are Froissart and Christine.

Froissart (1333—1410), at the age of 20, began to write a history of the wars of his own times, and made several journeys to examine the theatre of the events he was about to record. On the completion of the first part, he visited England, and was received with great favour by Philippa, the wife of Edward III., who appointed him her private secretary.

Two years later, he went to Scotland, where he became acquainted with David Bruce and William Earl of Douglas. In 1366, he accompanied the Black Prince to Aquitaine and Bordeaux. He afterwards went with the duke of Clarence to Italy, and was present with Chaucer and Petrarch, at the marriage of the prince with the daughter of Galeazzo Visconti.

On the death of queen Philippa, he left England, but returned again in 1395, when he was courteously entertained by Richard II.

Froissart's great work, called "*Chronicles*" is a record of events occurring in France, England, Scotland, and Spain, between the years 1326 and 1400. It is not a regular history, but a collection of notes or jottings, naïve, graceful, simple, spirit-stirring, and life-like; full of the pageantry of feudal times; but amidst the din of arms, the shouting of knights, and the marshalling of troops, "visions of fair women" rise before the reader. Few French books are so well known and appreciated in England, as Froissart's *Chronicles*.

Monstrellet continued the work to the year 1444; but he has neither the vigour nor descriptive power of his great original.

Christine of Pisan (1363—1415) was brought to Paris at the age of five years by her father, an astronomer in the service of Charles-le-Sage. She married at 15 and was left a widow at 25, when she began to attract attention by her fugitive poems. Her *Moral Sayings* addressed to her son, are sound and gentle, full of motherly love and poetical sweetness.

THE SCOTCH GUARDS.

Charles VI. instituted the celebrated band of archers called the Scotch Body-Guard. This he did because it was unsafe to trust the royal person to the keeping of any Frenchman.

The Scotch were the hereditary enemies of the English, and the ancient allies of France. They were poor, courageous, faithful, and quite willing to leave their own mountains and heaths to take service with any knight who would feed and clothe them.

This guard of 300 archers plays an important part in French history. The French monarchs made it a point to conciliate their affection, and humour their pride by honorary privileges and ample pay.

They all ranked as gentlemen; and their near approach to the royal person gave them dignity in their own eyes, and importance in the nation.

They were sumptuously armed, equipped, and mounted. Each was allowed a squire, a valet, a page, and two yeomen, with a corresponding equipage; so that cadets of the best families in Scotland were sent to serve in this honourable corps.

They wore the Scotch bonnet and feather, and, in the reign of Louis XI., a "Virgin Mary" of massive silver for brooch. Louis gave them this ornament when he devoted their swords to the Virgin, and made her their Colonel.

Their gorget, arm-pieces, and gauntlets, were of the finest steel, curiously inlaid with silver; and their hauberk or shirt of mail was bright and dazzling.

They wore a loose surcoat or cassock of rich blue velvet, open at the sides like that of a herald; with a large white St. Andrew's cross of silver bisecting it before and behind.

Their knees and legs were protected by hose of mail and shoes of steel. A broad-sword hung at their right side. A baldric for their two-handed sword

was thrown across their left shoulder, and the rules of the service never allowed them to lay aside that unwieldy weapon.

The yeomen of the guard dressed like the archers, only their cassocks were of serge instead of velvet, and they had neither limb-armour nor plume.

One of the two yeomen attached to each guardsman was called his "knife-man" (*couteilier*), from a large knife which he wore to dispatch those whom his master threw to the ground in a *mêlée*.

There was a royal Guard of 100 Scotchmen in the preceding reign, but the corps was increased to 300 and regularly organized and equipped in the reign of Charles VI. In that of Henri III. it was supplanted by *The Ordinaries*, and the ordinaries in their turn were by Louis XIII. changed for the celebrated *Musketeers*.

STATE OF THE CHURCH.

§ 1. THE 70 YEARS' CAPTIVITY AT AVIGNON. (FROM 1305 TO 1376.)

A heavy blow was inflicted on the temporal supremacy of Rome when Clement V. submitted to the kings of France, and fixed his chair at Avignon [*Av-ccn-yôn'g*].

The "seventy years' captivity" tended much to weaken the prestige of the pope; and as the pontiffs were living away from their estates, they were constantly devising new means of extortion for replenishing their coffers.

By this rapacious policy the feelings of the church were irritated, and public opinion was being gradually prepared for the mighty change of the Great Reformation.

The second pope who held his court at Avignon was John XXII., who maintained that the pope alone could nominate an emperor; but Louis IV., generally called *Louis of Bavaria*, despised the assumption; refused to acknowledge the title of John; and nominated a new pope, Nicholas V., whose court was held at Rome.

There were now *two* pontiffs, John XXII. and Nicholas V., but John succeeded in seizing his rival (whom he termed anti-pope), and keeping him in prison.

John XXII. was succeeded by Benedict XII., an enormous eater, and such a wine-bibber that he gave rise to the expression *bibamus papaliter*, let us drink like a pope.

Next followed Clement VI., who continued the controversy against the Emperor, and issued against him two writs of excommunication breathing curses more bitter than any previous ones.

The death of Louis brought this unhappy squabble to a close; and the pope might have recovered much lost ground, had he not ruined his character by rapacity, nepotism, and licentiousness.

Clement VI. was succeeded in 10 years by Innocent VI., who also reigned 10 years, and did something to produce a healthier tone of morals, and silence the general dissatisfaction.

Urban V. was the next pope; and attempted, but without success, to replace the papal chair in Rome.

His successor, Gregory XI., was more fortunate; and the term of the "captivity" was brought to a close. Gregory, however, died the year following, and a new dispute arose, called *The Great Schism of the West*, which lasted half a century, and tended even more than the "captivity," to bring about the Reformation.

§ 2. THE GREAT SCHISM OF THE WEST. (FROM 1378 TO 1429.)

The origin of this feud was as follows: On the death of Gregory XI. the Roman populace tumultuously demanded that the new pope should be an Italian, accordingly a Neapolitan was elected, who took the name of Urban VI.

It so happened that almost all the cardinals were Frenchmen; and when the pressure of the mob was withdrawn, they annulled the election of Urban, and nominated one of their own countrymen to the popedom, who was crowned as Clement VII. (1378).

Urban held his court at Rome, Clement resided at Avignon [*Av-cen-yôn'g*], England, Italy, Bohemia, Germany, Prussia, Poland, and the Scandinavian kingdoms, acknowledged the former; while France, Scotland, Spain, Sicily, and Cyprus, sided with the latter.

Urban died first; and the Roman conclave, ignoring the claim of Clement, elected Boniface IX. to the papacy (1389).

Not long after, Clement VII. died; and the French cardinals, ignoring in turn the opposition pontiff, elected Benedict XIII. to the vacant chair of Avignon (1394).

Benedict XIII. lived 30 years after his election; and, in the mean time, his rival at Rome died, and was succeeded by Gregory XII. (1406).

Scandalized by this unseemly struggle, the more sensible members of the church convened at length a general council to settle the dispute. The council sat at Pisa [*Pee'sah*]; and, deposing both the rival popes, elected a third who assumed the name of Alexander V. So now there were three pontiffs, Gregory XII., Benedict XIII., and Alexander V. Of these Alexander died first, and was succeeded by the infamous John XXIII. (1410).

As the council of Pisa made the breach worse instead of healing it, another council was summoned and met at Constance. This synod deposed John; declared Gregory and Benedict both anti-popes; and conferred the tiara upon Martin V. (1417).

There were now four pontiffs, of whom Gregory XII. died at the advanced age of 91, and John XXIII. two years afterwards.

In 1424 Benedict XIII. died, and the anti-Roman party elected in his place Clement VIII.; but the king of Arâgon induced him to abdicate. Thus terminated this scandalous schism which had disgraced the church for more than half a century.

It is not a little remarkable that the pope has received far more injury from his friends than from his open enemies. The 70 years captivity at Avignon, the great Schism of the West, the captivity of Pius VII. at Fontainebleau, and the spoliation of the temporal power of the Roman pontiff, are all due to France, that "eldest son of the church."

HISTORY OF THE FRENCH DRAMA.

PART I. MYSTERIES AND MORALITIES.

The love of fiction, common to all countries, introduced a rude species of dramatic composition into most of the nations of Europe, during the dark ages.

Like the first efforts of the ancients in that art, it had its foundation in religion, with this great difference, that whereas the rites of Bacchus were well enough suited to the worship of that deity, the religious plays of the middle ages were a disgrace to the religion they pretended to illustrate.

Mysteries. The first religious plays of France were termed *Mysteries*, because the subjects of them were the "religious mysteries:" such as the Incarnation, the Crucifixion, the Holy Trinity, and the Real Presence.

Authorized by the clergy, they were represented in some cathedral or its close; and were generally composed by monks, who were also the actors. The most celebrated association ever formed was a company of pilgrims called the *Brethren of the Passion*.

At the marriage of Charles VI. with Isabeau of Bavaria, one of the entertainments was the *Mystery of the Passion and Resurrection*, which lasted eight days, and contained 87 characters, of which St. John the Evangelist was chief speaker.

The king was so pleased with it that he incorporated the performers into a company, called *The Masters and Fraternity of the Passion and Resurrection*.

In this reign the rage for these theatricals was so great, that the priests found it necessary to alter the hour of vespers, to enable actors and audience to attend both. They were looked upon as organs of religious instruction, whereby the main incidents of Gospel history and of the Saints were communicated dramatically, when the people were too ignorant to read, and too indifferent to listen to sermons or lectures.

The representation always began at one o'clock, and lasted till three or four. The price of admission for each person was two sous (a penny), rather a heavy fee, when the rate of wages for a workman was only a sou [*sou*] a day.

The spectators generally took part in these representations; and hence the French expression "to assist in a spectacle," is equivalent to "being a spectator."

¶ The most famous Mysteries were, *the Passion, the Resurrection, the Incarnation, and St. Catherine*. The first two were often performed together, as at the marriage of Charles the Well-Beloved.

Their first appearance in France was in the 13th century; they were most in vogue in the 14th; began to decline in the 15th; and were wholly interdicted in the 16th.

A Mystery was performed before Philippe IV. le-Bel, when (in 1313) the honour of knighthood was conferred on his children.

The *Mystery of the Passion* is still annually performed in the Tyrol during Passion Week.

Moralities differ from Mysteries in that the subjects of them were not taken from the Bible, and the *dramatis personæ* were abstract allegorical characters, such as *Carnal-minded, Greathheart, Faithful, Hopeful, Despair, Youth, Age*, and so on.

This sort of dramatic representation was an offshoot of the *Allegorical Romance* brought into fashion by the *Romance of the Rose*. It was at its height of popularity in the reigns of Charles VI. and VII. and under Louis XI. and XII. (*continued at p. 130*).

PLAYING CARDS.

Playing-cards, recently introduced into France, were the favourite amusement of Charles VI. during his fits of melancholy. They were brought into Europe from the country of the Saracens, and were well-known in Hindustan and China many centuries before.

The **four suits** represent the four estates: the clergy, nobles, peasants, and mechanics.

The clergy, called choir-men (*gens de chœur*) are represented by *hearts*. This suit is called by the Spaniards *Copas* (chalices), but by the French *chœur*, corrupted into *cœur* (a heart), an error perpetuated in our translation.

The nobles are represented by *spades* or rather *pike-heads*. This suit is called by the Spaniards *espadas* (swords), but by the French *pique* (pike-men). Our term is a corruption of the Spanish word, and conveys an erroneous notion.

The peasantry are represented by *clubs*. This suit is called by the Spaniards *bastos* (rustics), but by the French *trèfle* (clover). Our term is again taken from the Spanish, and "bastos" confounded with *bastinados* or clubs.

The mechanics are represented by *diamonds*. This suit is called by the Spaniards *dincros*, a square piece of money used to pay wages with; but by the French *carreaux*, square pavements or building tiles. In our pack the shape is preserved, but the translation conveys an erroneous idea.

The **four kings**, in the French pack, are representatives of four kingdoms: the French, Jewish, Macedonian, and Roman.

The king of *hearts*, called "Charlemagne," represents the first; the king of *spades* ("David"), the second; the king of *clubs* ("Alexander"), the third; and the king of *diamonds* ("Cæsar"), the fourth.

In our pack, the court cards are heraldic. The king of hearts represents the *English* monarch; the king of spades, the *French*; the king of clubs, the *pope*; and the king of diamonds, *Spain*.

The **four queens** or dames represent, Royalty, Wisdom, Fortitude, and Piety.

The dame of *hearts* is called by the French "Argine" (*Juno*), the queen of queens; and the word was selected, because it forms an anagram for *regina*. The dame of *spades* is called "Pallas," the goddess of wisdom. The dame of *clubs* "Judith," the slayer of Holifernés, and type of courage. And the dame of *diamonds* "Rachel," the representative of the Jewish nation or of piety.

In the reign of Charles VII. the faces of the four dames were drawn to represent four distinguished ladies: Judith, dame of *clubs*, was a likeness of Isabeau the queen-mother; Pallas, dame of *spades*, of Jeanne d'Arc; Argine, dame of *hearts*, the queen herself; and Rachel, dame of *diamonds*, Agnès Sorel, the king's mistress.

The **four knaves** or varlets represent four knights or paladins; and their names in the French pack are La-Hire, Hogier, Lancelot, and Hector.

The first is the famous general in the reign of Charles VII., who greatly distinguished himself against the English; the second is Hogier the Dane, the most famous of Charlemagne's paladins; the third is the most noted of the "Knights of the Round Table;" and the last is Hector-de-Galard, the companion of La-Hire.

This entry occurs in the ledger of the royal treasury of France in 1393: "Given to Jacquemin Gringonneur, painter, for three packs of cards, gilt and coloured, for the amusement of the king, 56 sols of Paris" (2s). The favourite game was "All-Fours."

CHARLES VII. LE VICTORIEUX.

REIGNED 39 YEARS. FROM 1422 TO 1461. *Contemporary with Henry VI.*

Kingdom. The English are deprived of all their possessions in France, except Calais.

Burgundy. Philippe-le-Bon, son of Jean-Sans-Peur, and grandson of Philippe-le-Hardi, was duke of this vast territory. He was duc de Bourgogne, de Lorraine, de Brabant, de Limbourg, and de Gueldres; comte de Flandre and d'Artois; comte-palatine de Hainault, de Zetland, de Namur, and de Zutphen; Seigneur de la Frise, de Salins, and de Malines; and was styled by foreigners the *Grand Duke of the West*. He founded the order of the *Golden Fleece*.

Married Marie d'Anjou, daughter of Louis II. of Naples.

Chief Residence. The Palais-des-Tournelles.

Issue. Louis the dauphin, Charles duc de Berry, and four daughters.

Contemporary Events. Printing was invented. The Zuyder-Zee of Holland was suddenly formed by the subsidence of the land in 1423. And the Eastern empire, which had existed 1123 years, was annihilated in 1453.

At the death of the Well-Beloved, Henry VI. of England, infant son of the English Alexander, was proclaimed king of France and England. The duke of Bedford was appointed regent of both kingdoms; and was supported by the dukes of Burgundy and Brittany, the two most powerful feudatories of the French crown.

The dauphin was only 19 years of age, and assumed the title of *King of France*, but was not recognized by the nation. And as Bourges [*Boor'zj*] was the only town except Orléans, which remained faithful to him, he was nicknamed *King of Bourges*.

He rode about on a sorry nag, which would not have started at the report of a gun; and was so destitute of money, that when a cobbler brought back a pair of shoes, he had not wherewithal to pay him.

The good-natured, indolent, despised young prince was looked down upon by everyone; and the kingdom of France was reduced to a mere shadow, when a poor peasant-girl and a royal courtesan restored it, and made it more puissant than ever.

Siege of Orleans (1428). In order to reduce the refractory towns to allegiance, the duke of Bedford first laid siege to Orléans, intending next to march against Bourges [*Boor'zj*]. The city was invested, but held out with great obstinacy for five months.

At the approach of Lent a large supply of salt herrings was sent to the besiegers under a strong escort. The men of Orléans hearing of it, sallied out and attacked the escort, but were driven back with great slaughter.

This *sortie* is called "the Battle of the Herrings;" and the repulse reduced the Orleanists to such despair, that they began to treat for a surrender, when the whole aspect of events was completely changed in a most singular manner.

A young girl of mean estate, and born in an obscure village, suddenly announced that she had received a mission from heaven to raise the siege, and conduct the king to Reims [*Rah'nce*] to be crowned.

The young girl was called Jeanne d'Arc. She was introduced to the dauphin; and the dauphin, whose affairs were desperate, gave her authority to act as she thought fit.

Arrayed in complete mail, and holding a standard in her hand, she was escorted to Orléans, and actually succeeded in entering the besieged city with an army of relief.

Her tale soon spread on all sides; and the gross superstition of the times gave it sufficient importance to alarm the besiegers, who were so panic-struck that they raised the siege; and the first part of the strange promise was fulfilled.

Jeanne [*Zjann*] now resolved to carry the second into effect; and conducted Charles, at the head of his army to Reims [*Rah'nce*], which was, at the time, in possession of the English.

The fame of the maiden had preceded her; the garrison fled without striking a blow; Charles entered in triumph; and was solemnly crowned the next day by the archbishop (1429).

The maid had now accomplished her mission, and modestly requested to retire from public life. The king, however, declined to accept her resignation: and from this moment she experienced a series of misfortunes, which ended in her being betrayed to the English and burnt to death.

The English driven out of France (1435). The domination of the English in France now rapidly declined; but it took 20 years to chase them wholly from the provinces. The death of the duke of Bedford, and the desertion of the duc de Bourgogne [*Boor-goin'ye*] gave the finishing stroke to the contest. Paris opened her gates to Charles VII., and nothing was left to the English but the fortified town of Calais.

The most signal defeat suffered by the English was at Castillon, near Bordeaux. Here the earl of Shrewsbury and his son were slain (1453).

State of France prior to 1440. The long wars had reduced the country to a most deplorable condition. The northern provinces were a desert; the midland, barren heaths and fallows; and the whole west was covered with briars and thorns so rank that whole armies might lose themselves in the thick brushwood.

The villagers took refuge in the large cities, and the cities were reduced almost to starvation. The unburied dead caused a pestilence, before which the people fell by hundreds. The poor were so destitute that even when they obtained a little food they could not purchase fuel to cook it, and therefore stole doors and shutters for firewood.

Paris was almost utterly forsaken. The houses were so dismantled, that an edict was passed in 1432 forbidding people to continue their depredations. The English had long abandoned it; and when Charles entered it with the hope of taking up his abode there, he found it so impracticable, that he left it to the wolves.

The feudatories, defiant of the laws, perpetrated the wildest excesses. In Auvergne [*O-vairn*] alone, the king was informed, that there were above 300 of these nobles living in habitual incest, rapine, and violence.

Besides these, were several other bandits, especially those called Clippers and Flayers (*Fondeurs* and *Ecorcheurs*), disbanded soldiers who let themselves out for hire to any adventurer who chose to pay them; and roved about the country, seizing castles, making prisoners for the sake of ransom, exacting tribute, and robbing travellers.

Lastly, a new class of vagabonds called by the English *gipsies*, and by the French *Bohemians*, now made their appearance for the first time. They were a beggarly set of vagrants, of manners most depraved, who pretended to earn a living by palmistry and fortune-telling, but who in reality were arrant thieves.

Their leader wore scarlet or green, and assumed the title of king, duke, or count; but all the rest of the gang was made up of miserable wretches, filthy in the extreme, half covered with gaudy rags, and from the very refuse of society.

The Praguerie (1440). At the head of the bold adventurers which sprang into existence in these disorderly times were several

great captains whose names have become historical, especially Dunois [*Dune-wor*], La-Hire [*Lah-Eyar*], and Xaintrailles [*Zan-try'e*].

When the king organized a militia to put them down, they leagued together to dethrone him, and make the dauphin king.

Their head quarters was Prague in Bohemia; whence the rebellion was called the "Praguerie" [*Prarg-gree*]. But the enterprise was badly conducted; and Charles, marching into Prague, crushed the revolt in about six months.

Dunois [*Dune-wor*] and some other of the chiefs tendered their submission, were received graciously, and joined the royal army; but the Dauphin was banished to his own appanage.

(1) DUNOIS (1402—1468), root of the noble house of Longueville, was appointed by Charles lieutenant-general of the royal forces, and was mainly instrumental in driving the English out of France. He survived the king some seven years, and was appointed by Louis XI. President of the Reform Council.

(2) ETIENNE VIGNOLES (1387—1442) surnamed *La-Hire* or the Growler from his deep baying voice, was another distinguished officer in this struggle. He was present at the siege of Orléans; and when Jeanne d'Arc [*Zjann Dark*] was taken captive, fell into the hands of the English. Having effected his escape, he drove the English from place to place; and died at last of his wounds.

Seigneur XAINTRAILLES (1394—1401) was a companion of La-Hire, also highly distinguished.

JEANNE D'ARC (1402—1431) surnamed "*La Pucelle*" [*Lar Pu-sell*] was born at D'Omrémy, near Vaucouleurs, of rustic parents; and tended sheep till the age of 18, when she conceived the idea of relieving her country; and felt convinced that she had received a mission from heaven for the purpose.

Out of gratitude to the young girl, Charles ennobled her whole family, and exempted the village of D'Omrémy in perpetuity from all taxes. It is most probable that she married and died a natural death; but the romancers say that when the town of Compiègne was besieged by the duke of Burgundy and the earls of Arundel and Suffolk, Jeanne [*Zjann*] was persuaded to throw herself into the city, and was taken captive in a sally. After being imprisoned for four months, she was condemned on the charge of sorcery by the university of Paris, and burnt to death at Rouen [*Roo-on'g*], at the age of 21.

Charles VII. erected an ornamental fountain to her, and its site is said to be the spot where she suffered death. The fountain was destroyed in the Great Revolution; and the place is now memorialized by a statue.

The Rebellious Son. Louis now threw off all disguise, and openly intrigued against his father with the duke of Burgundy, the duke of Alençon [*Al-arn-sôn'g*], the king of Castile, and the pope.

In order to raise money for his base ends, he sold patents of nobility to any one who chose to purchase them. Tradesmen, farmers, and even mechanics were ennobled by him; and the riff-raff body went by the name of the *Prince's Peers*.

Soon his intrigues alarmed the king, who sent Dunois [*Dune-wor*] to arrest him. But Louis fled to Burgundy, and was liberally entertained in his uncle's court for above five years.

His father's death being at length announced to him, he took no pains to conceal his joy; and never son less dissembled sorrow then he did when he was greeted as Louis XI. of France.

It is said that he suborned some of the royal household to make away with his royal father, as well as with Agnès Sorel the king's mistress. Be this as it may, one thing is certain, that no one long survived, whom he disliked or wished to be removed out of his path.

Character of Charles VII. For the first ten years of his reign Charles VII. was blown about by every passing fancy. Too frivolous for serious occupation, he gave himself up to riotous living; and too indolent for exertion, he was led by favourites at their will. But after his coronation, a complete change came over him, due to the wholesome influence of Agnès Sorel, a lady to whom he was very greatly attached. Throwing off his indolence and dissipation, he gave himself diligently to state affairs, and even sacrificed his personal comforts to the faithful discharge of his high duties.

Agnès Sorel (1410—1450), surnamed *la dame de Beauté*, from the château de Beauté, on the banks of the Marne, given her by the king, was the daughter of a poor lawyer of Touraine. When Charles first saw her, she was one of the maids of honour in the train of the duchess of Anjou. Agnès used her ascendancy over the king to rouse him from his indolence and voluptuousness; and it was to her influence mainly, that the great change in his character must be attributed. Even the queen honoured her, and shewed her every mark of affection.

POLICY OF CHARLES VII. LE VICTORIEUX.

In order to prevent rebellion and invasion, Charles VII. provided a standing army of 22,000 archers and 900 horsemen. This is the first standing army on record, and was productive of the most beneficial results.

It was not only a terror to the disaffected, it provided also employment for the restless military spirits of the nation. Commerce revived with security and peace, agriculture was again attended to, and order was everywhere restored.

He next turned his attention to the church, and solemnly promulgated what is termed the *Pragmatic Sanction*, or laws to define and limit the spiritual power of the pope in France. By this ordinance, the authority of a general council was declared superior to the dictum of the pope; the clergy were forbidden to appeal to Rome on any point affecting the secular condition of the nation; and the Roman pontiff was in no case allowed to appropriate to himself any vacant benefice, or appoint to either bishopric or parish church.

By his wise laws and energetic conduct Charles-the-Victorious became the most powerful monarch of Europe. He reigned for 39 years, and died in the 58th year of his age from actual starvation, being afraid to touch food, lest it should have been poisoned by his son Louis.

COSTUME IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES VII.

(1) **Of Women.** By far the most remarkable part of ladies' dress in this reign was their head-gear, which consisted of two horns, like those of an ox, sometimes spread out for two feet or more on both sides of the head, sometimes towering upright above it, and sometimes branching out obliquely, but in all cases supporting a veil or curtain.

Other ladies wore monster mitre-hats; others sugar-loaf hoods three-quarters of a yard high; others again a head-dress shaped like a heart; and some few, large Turkish turbans with the folds puffed out.

The clergy bitterly inveighed against these absurdities. And Thomas Conecte, a popular preacher, employed boys to run after the ladies, to upset their horns, and annoy them by braying like an ass.

The gown was still worn, as in the last reign, with tabard sleeves; but the waist was very short, and long trains were discontinued. A deep border of fur, and a broad silk sash, were fashionable ornaments.

(2) The **Men** wore shorter jackets than in the preceding reign. The material was chiefly silk, satin, or velvet. The sleeves were slashed at the shoulders, and terminated in a point like those of a Bachelor of Arts. When gentlemen took a walk, they generally tied their sleeves in a knot, that they might not stumble over them.

The hair was worn long. The hat was of cloth, very fantastical in shape, and, in some cases, decorated in front with a feather.

Neither beards nor whiskers were in vogue, though moustaches were in some few cases indulged in.

The shoes were still peaked, and the point, says Paradin, extended half a foot from the toe for common people, 12 inches for gentlemen, and two feet for noblemen. The trousers fitted close to the legs. And every gentleman wore a huge gold chain about his neck.

(3) **Military.** In this reign was introduced the plume to the helmet, a decoration hitherto confined to heraldic crests. The helmet also took the shape of the skull behind, and resembled the German head-piece.

Huge two-handed swords with waved or flaming blades five feet long were introduced, but were used more for state than war. Commanders always carried a pole-axe.

Breast-plates were covered with silk. Spurs were screwed into the steel shoes, instead of being fastened on them by thongs. They were enormously long in the neck, and the spikes of the rowels resembled huge nails.

Artillery was in general use; and hand-cannons, called *gonnes* by the Italian inventor, were fixed in wooden stocks. There were also short guns fitted with a battle-axe at one end.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES VII.

The three chief celebrities, besides those already mentioned, were Alain Chartier [*Shar-te-a*], Charles duke of Orleans, and Jacques Cœur [*Zjark Kur*],

Alain Chartier (1386—1458), surnamed the *Father of French eloquence*, was secretary to Charles VI. and VII. When Margaret of Scotland, the dauphin's wife, saw him on one occasion asleep upon a chair, she went up and kissed his lips in admiration of the "sweet words which flowed from them."

Of his prose works, the best are the *The Parsonage* and the *Four Speakers*. In the former (*le Curial*) he inveighs against the abuses of the church. The latter (*le Quadrilogue*) is an allegory on the distracted state of the nation; in which dame France exhorts her three sons (the clergy, nobles, and people), to put an end to their miseries by concord.

Of his poetical works, the best known to Englishmen, are *The Husbandless Beauty* and the *Book of the Four Ladies*. The latter is a complete facsimile of Chaucer's style. All are racy, witty, and of rare simplicity.

Charles duc d'Orleans (1391—1466) was son of Louis of Orleans, and son-in-law by his second wife to comte d'Armagnac [*Cônt Dar-man-yak*] the anti-Burgundian leader. He was found, after the battle of Azincourt, by Richard Waller, on a heap of slain, with signs of life still in him; and Henry V. consigned him to the charge of Waller, who kept him a prisoner at large for 25 years in his mansion at Groombridge, in Kent.

After his release, he married for a third time. The lady of his choice was Marie of Cleves, by whom he had one son, Louis (afterwards Louis XII. of France), and two daughters.

Charles duke of Orleans was a poet of rare parts. His lays and ditties excel any thing hitherto produced, and may be taken as models of ease and elegance. They remind one of Wordsworth, and will not suffer by comparison with that celebrated author. There are two or three *Upon Spring* of unrivalled grace and simplicity; and some of his *Love Songs* are equal to anything written by that prince of erotic poetry, Thomas Moore.

Jacques Cœur (1400—1461) ought not to be passed over unnoticed. He was a celebrated gold and silversmith of Bourges [*Boor'zj*], who had argosies to every part of the known world, and acquired an enormous fortune. Charles VII. made him his silversmith and treasurer; confided to him several delicate diplomatic missions; and was, at one time, deeply indebted to his princely liberality.

Jacques Cœur (*Zjark Kur*) realized £23,000, an immense sum of money in those days, when the average rate of wages for a labourer was only a half-penny a day; but he excited the envy of his countrymen by his wealth; and Charles, forgetful of his obligations, allowed him to be plundered of all he possessed.

Accused of sorcery, the goldsmith was thrown into prison; whence he made his escape, fled to Rome, and was appointed by the pope commander of the fleet against the Turks. In this expedition he fell sick and died. A painful example of the infidelity of princes, and the cruelty of a vulgar superstition.

LOUIS XI.

REIGNED 22 YEARS. FROM 1461 TO 1483. *Contemporary with Edward IV.*

Kingdom. When Louis-onze came to the crown, the kingdom consisted of 14 provinces.

Ere his death he added five others: Roussillon in 1462; Burgundy in 1477; Maine and Provence in 1481; and Anjou in 1482.

Married twice. First Margaret, daughter of James I. of Scotland, who died broken-hearted at his unkindness. Next Charlotte of Savoy.

Issue. None by his first wife. By his second, five children: Charles who succeeded him; Anne who married Pierre de Bourbon; Jeanne who married the duc d'Orléans, afterwards Louis XII.; and two others who died young.

Chief Residences. Plessis-lès-Tours, the Palais-des-Tournelles, and the Louvre.

His History is contained in the *Memoirs* of Comines; *Vie de Louis XI.*, by Varillas; and *History of Louis XI.* by Duclos.

Great Vassals of the Crown. The duc de Bourgogne; the duc de Bretagne; and Charles, comte d'Anjou, who made the king his heir.

INTRODUCTION.

Louis-onze was 38 years old when he succeeded to the throne. His reign constitutes an important epoch in the history of France, not only from the vast accession of territory gained to the crown, but more especially from the advancement made towards absolutism, and the new art of governing introduced by this wily monarch.

His Policy. (1) Louis XI. governed by diplomacy. Previous sovereigns had governed by lordly authority, and had sacrificed the future for the present. Louis, on the other hand, governed by negotiation, and calculated for the future more than for the passing moment.

So also in war, he depended far more upon his bribes, his money, and his places, than upon his army. He won over by rich rewards those of his enemies who were corruptible; broke up their leagues; and then cut them off in detachments.

So again, he employed in his service men of low estate instead of nobles, in order that he might have his work done, and no questions asked. Whereas, to have entrusted his commissions to the high and mighty, would have been

to run the risk of being betrayed, or even defied, if the work to be performed was not acceptable.

(2) The reign of Louis-onze may be termed the close of the age of chivalry, and the commencement of the present utilitarian age.

Not that the spirit of chivalry never revived again. The first François was a truly chivalrous monarch; and the chevalier Bayard, who knighted him, was a model of chivalry; but as for Louis himself, he had not a single particle of chivalry in his composition. He was far too selfish, covetous, and mean-spirited, to practise or even appreciate the noble self-denying principles of knighthood.

At the same time, it must be confessed that the system was no longer suited to the times. It had become old fashioned. Commerce, the love of domesticity, the desire of wealth and ease, had already set in; and, therefore, Louis did not run counter to the times, but before them.

(3) With chivalry ended the ancient military system of France; and the army was no longer constituted of vassals and their serfs, but of regular mercenaries, whose trade was war.

Charles VII., the father of Louis-onze, towards the close of his reign, introduced the first standing army; and Louis perpetuated the same custom.

Royal vassals were found to be very dangerous rivals of the crown. There was the duke of Burgundy far richer and more powerful than the king himself. There was the duke of Brittany, the count of Anjou, and some others, nearly equal to him in power and dominion.

When two or more of these nominal vassals united, they were almost irresistible; and, when no invader threatened their common interest, they made no scruple in lifting their standard against their liege and sovereign lord the king.

The great policy of Louis was to break up the power of these nobles; to annihilate the feudal system; and no longer to tolerate an empire within an empire; fully believing in the truth of that scripture axiom "a kingdom divided against itself cannot stand."

Louis, therefore, sought to make the crown absolute; the nobles simple subjects; the army mere military operatives; and in all this he met with singular success.

Before his reign, France had constantly to struggle for very existence with England, who frequently held her fairest provinces; but after it, the nation rose gradually to a first-class state, whose formidable power has been a perpetual object of jealousy to the rest of Europe.

(4) With chivalry declined that homage and delicacy which men were taught to shew to women; and the sex was no longer viewed as the noblest remuneration of valour, but in the unromantic light of the mere female of the human race.

Of course it was some time before this gross notion was generally accepted; and at all times there have been men of a more generous nature; but as far as Louis XI. was concerned, so he felt and so he acted. He was a low voluptuary, wholly without sentiment; and his courtesans, like his friends, were taken from the dregs of the people, that they might be his tools and panders, without one single free and independent sentiment.

Louis XI. entertained the greatest contempt for the understanding and moral character of the sex, and his opinion was by no means unique.

Character of Louis XI. (1) Louis was a complete utilitarian. He never fought for honour, or continued a struggle when the point of utility was gained; but in order to attain that point, he sacrificed everything without the least compunction.

(2) He was so secret in all his plans, that no one ever guessed at what he was manœuvring, till his object was attained. Indeed he used to say, "The king who knows not how to dissemble knows not how to reign;" and as for himself, if he thought his very cap had known his secrets, he would have thrown it into the fire.

(3) He was by nature vindictive and cruel, so as even to find pleasure in executions; but no sentiment of vengeance ever induced him to punish an enemy prematurely. He stopped till all danger and suspicion were over, and then sprang upon his prey.

(4) In like manner he was extremely mean and avaricious; but, when necessary, could be most lavish in his gifts. To break up a league, or avert an attack, or gain a point, he spared no expense, and set no limit to his bribes.

(5) He was very fond of pleasure, especially the chase; but no pleasure or self-indulgence, could at any time withdraw him from his regular attendance to business, and the affairs of state.

(6) He was both haughty and proud; but mingled familiarly with the lowest society; and raised from the lowest ranks men whom he employed on the most important duties. And it must be confessed, that he was so good a discernor of character, that he was seldom deceived in his choice.

(7) Though impious to a degree, he was extremely superstitious, and seemed to imagine that Heaven was to be appeased by bribes, as well as men. Hence he created the Virgin Mary a countess and colonel of his guards; was a collector of all sorts of relics; and never omitted his *pater noster* or *Avê Maria* at the appointed moment, even though he had to break off a cunning scheme, or delay a blow of secret vengeance.

(8) His conscience was very tender, although his heart was wicked, and his conduct infamous. He laboured painfully to quiet his remorse; subjected himself to severe penances; made liberal gifts to churches; paid priests to pray for him; and never slept or stirred abroad without his relics and crucifix.

(9) He was greatly addicted to low pleasures and obscure debaucheries; was fond of low life; and being himself a man of wit, enjoyed the jest of the peasant, who not knowing him could speak to him freely and without reserve.

(10) His ruling impulse was impatience; he must always be doing something, or contriving something; but, at the same time, he never abandoned what he undertook till he had accomplished it, however remote that end might be.

(11) In his habits and dress he was extremely simple. With the great he snarled and jeered; with inferiors he was easy and familiar.

In fine, never was there a stranger compound. Undoubtedly brave, he lived in terror of death. Undoubtedly far-sighted and a keen discernor of characters, he was the dupe of cunning vagabonds and impostors. He was mean and prodigal, frank and hypocritical, confiding and suspicious, impious and a devotee.

With all this, it is doubtful whether a more scrupulous and honourable man could have done what he accomplished: counteracted the evils of the times; established on a firm basis the tottering throne; and abolished the feudal system.

The expression of his face was partly repulsive and partly attractive. His features were strongly marked, his eyes hollow, his cheeks sunken, his eyebrows thick and black. There was shrewdness and humour in his countenance, not without dignity and command; but a certain sinister expression lurked beneath, extremely repulsive.

His forehead was high and projecting but narrow, indicating a keen and observing mind with little imagination. His lips were thin and compressed, the upper one by its curl indicating a love of cruelty.

Coronation of Louis XI.—The coronation of Louis XI. at Reims [*Rah'nee*] was very characteristic. While everything was magnificent in the extreme, and every one arrayed as superbly as possible, Louis himself appeared in a mantle of coarse grey cloth, and a felt hat turned up at the sides, without either feather or jewel.

He passed the whole previous night in the church at his devotions; and while the coronation service was going on, paid no attention to any one or any thing, but kept on his knees, with his hands clasped, and his eyes upraised.

When the anointing oil was brought forth, he adored it, together with the flask which held it, and the case which enveloped the flask. In a word, he was ready to adore every thing.

There was an ancient custom, wholly obsolete in the 15th century, which he renewed. It consisted in being stripped to the skin, and presenting the bare body to the bishop, that it might be anointed under the arms and upon the breast, as well as on the brows, eyes, mouth, and ears.

The anointing over, Louis was dressed in his royal robes; placed on a throne elevated 27 feet; and crowned by the first peer in the land, the duke of Burgundy.

¶ The banquet was the next ceremony. It was, of course, most sumptuous. The king finding his crown troublesome, took it off and laid it on the table beside him; then turning to one of the waiters, named Philippe Pot, who stood behind him, addressed all his conversation to him, regardless of the high nobles on each side of the throne.

When the banquet was over, costly presents were presented to the new king; then the vassals offered homage for their fiefs; and then the magistrates offered to him the keys of the city.

¶ The next process was to go to Notre-Dame. On this occasion he wore a crimson doublet, white satin mantle, and hat turned up at the sides. He rode a white horse in sign of sovereignty; and a gorgeous canopy was held over his head.

Prayers being over, the relics were brought forth for adoration. Then a batch of knights was created, who were expected to hold a tournament when the service was over.

As Louis took no interest in this pageant, he threw off his fine clothes, and resumed his mean attire: a mantle of coarse grey cloth, a felt hat, and travelling hose, all of which are still preserved.

¶ When Philippe-le-bon was about to leave the city to return to his dukedom of Burgundy, the wily king had him escorted in procession; and declared to the University, in a set speech, that he could never be sufficiently grateful to him, or shew him adequate honour.

His acting was so natural, that most persons thought him sincere; but his only motive was to throw the duke off his guard, that he might humble him the more easily.

CHARLES-LE-TEMERAIRE, duc de Bourgogne (1433—1477).

As this reign is intimately interwoven with that of Charles surnamed *le Téméraire*, who succeeded to the dukedom of Burgundy in 1467, it will be desirable to understand the character of this powerful vassal.

Charles, comte de Charolais, is generally called in English Charles the Bold; but the word *Téméraire* means rather audacious, rash, and headstrong, than morally courageous. Undoubtedly brave, the courage of Charles of Burgundy was allied to foolhardiness. He rushed upon danger, because he loved the excitement; and flung himself into difficulties, because he despised them.

Louis XI. never sacrificed his interest to his passions; Charles never controlled his passion for anything. Louis submitted everything to policy;

Charles knew nothing of prudence, and as for policy, he gave it no place in his principles of action. Louis was all calculation ; Charles all impulse. The wily monarch despised the inconsiderate duke, whom he likened to a mad bull ; the duke no less despised the serpent king, and took no pains to mask his aversion.

Charles was extremely fond of war. His wealth was enormous ; his provinces thickly populated ; his army well disciplined ; and his knights the noblest and bravest of the land. His court was the most magnificent in Europe. He was lavish in expenditure ; splendid in all his appointments ; and drew around his person all the fiery spirits of the age.

Louis was his suzerain and liege lord ; but the bonds of vassalage were very loose ; and the fiery Burgundian resolved to throw them off altogether, and raise his dukedom into an independent kingdom.

LOUIS-ONZE BREAKS UP THE LEAGUE FOR-THE-PUBLIC-WEAL.

Battle of Montlhery (1465). Scarcely had Louis-onze ascended the throne, when the haughty nobles took umbrage at his general policy. They plainly saw that he was jealous of them ; and made men of low degree his friends and advisers.

They, therefore, formed a powerful confederation, called by the patriotic name of the *League for the public weal* ; the ostensible object of which was to defend their rights and privileges ; but its real purpose was to aggrandize themselves by over-riding the monarchy.

At the head of the league stood Charles-le-Téméraire (not then duke of Burgundy), Charles-of-France the king's brother, and the count of St. Pol. Around them gathered several princes of the blood, and a host of discontented nobles, ministers, and generals.

The confederates flew to arms ; and the royalists, led on by the king in person, met them at Montlhery, where a bloody but undecisive battle was fought.

This was sufficient for Louis, who immediately entered upon negotiations with the league ; and both parties signed at *Conflans* a treaty of peace.

It was now the king's object to break up the alliance. This he did by flattering speeches and substantial benefits. To Charles-of-France he ceded Normandy ; to the duke of Burgundy, Ponthieu [*Pôn-teu*] ; to the comte de St. Pol, the constable's baton ; and to the other chief rebels governments, pensions, or honours, to their hearts content.

The danger being over, he summoned the States-General at Tours, and compelled them to declare the treaty null and void. Accordingly, Charles-of-France was denied the dukedom of Normandy ; the duke of Burgundy, Ponthieu ; and the other malcontents the gifts respectively promised them.

Having thrown the whole onus of this disgraceful breach of faith on the States-General, he summarily prorogued them without further ceremony.

LOUIS-ONZE HUMBLES THE DUKE OF BRITTANY.

Treaty of Ancenis (1468). Charles-of-France, stung to the quick by the duplicity of his royal brother, had recourse at once to the duke of Brittany, who willingly espoused his cause.

In the mean time, the good duke of Burgundy died, and was succeeded by his son Charles-le-Téméraire, who both hated and feared the wily Louis, on whom he resolved to make war.

For this purpose he joined the two malcontents; and still further to strengthen his hands, married Margaret of York, sister of Edward IV.

Before the English auxiliaries could arrive, or even the confederates could bring their forces together, Louis showed himself in Brittany with a large army. The duke, taken by surprise, and wholly unable to sustain the attack, was compelled to submit, and signed at Ancenis [*Arm-say-nee*] a treaty of peace.

LOUIS-ONZE CAUGHT IN HIS OWN TRAP.

Treaty of Peronne (1468). Louis next tried to get into his net the fiery Charles of Burgundy; but signally failed in his attempt.

His plan was to induce the large and wealthy bishopric of Liege [*Le-aje*], which belonged to Burgundy, to throw itself on his protection; and to make this a cause of quarrel between himself and the great duke.

Next to Ghent [*Gah'ng*] the people of Liege were the most insubordinate of all Europe. Twice already, in the life-time of the present duke, had they been chastised for rebellion; their privileges abridged; their banners taken away; and heavy fines imposed upon them.

Here then was an admirable field of operation. Accordingly, Louis sent his emissaries into Liege [*Le-aje*]; represented to the people their grievances; urged them to rise; and promised them protection, aid, and freedom.

While his agents were at work, Louis, in order to hoodwink the duke, who was lying at Péronne [*Pa-ronn*] with a considerable army, requested permission to pay him a friendly visit.

The chivalrous Charles readily consented; and the king, attended only with his Scotch guards, was lodged in the castle at his own request.

Scarcely had he entered, when news was brought to the duke that the Liegeois [*Le-aje-wor*] were in open revolt, instigated by the king himself. The duke was furious; swore he would take the life of his perfidious guest; and kept him a close prisoner in the castle, till he could make up his mind how to proceed.

After three days, when his choler was somewhat abated, and Louis had corrupted by bribes several of the Burgundian courtiers,

the duke was induced to bring his royal prisoner to terms, and to release him.

Louis was glad to accede to any conditions to escape from his dilemma, and bade his cousin draw up what terms he pleased, saying, "Whatever it may please my fair cousin to demand, it will please the king to accept."

By the compact of Péronne [*Pa-ronn*], Louis agreed to abandon his suzerainty over the dominions of Burgundy; to consign to his brother Charles-of-France the province of Champagne; and to march with the Burgundian host against the city of Liege [*Le-aje*].

The Liegeois [*Le-aje-wor*] could not believe that the king would thus abandon them; but so it was. The city was utterly destroyed; 40,000 men were slain by the sword; and 12,000 women and children were drowned in the Meuse.

After this dreadful vengeance Louis returned to Paris. He had undergone three weeks of such acute suffering, that, on his arrival at the Louvre, he fell dangerously ill, and his life was for a time despaired of.

HOW LOUIS-ONZE WINS HIS THIRD GAME.

§ 1. *Sudden death of Charles-de-France, 1472.*

Louis XI. agreed to give his brother Charles the province of Champagne; but thinking it dangerous to place him so near the duke of Burgundy, induced him to exchange that province for Guyenne.

Scarcely had he consented to this exchange, when he suddenly fell ill and died. The king, of course, was accused of having poisoned him, and scarcely took the trouble to deny the charge.

§ 2. *Siege of Beauvais raised, 1472.*

The duke of Burgundy, furious at this treachery, instantly marched into Picardy, and laid siege to Beauvais [*Bo-vay*]; but the town was so bravely defended by **Jeanne Hachette**, that Charles-le-Téméraire was obliged to decamp.

For this service Jeanne Hachette and her future husband were exempted from all rates and taxes for life. In the procession which commemorated the siege, the women walked before the men. And the town of Beauvais was made into a free corporation.

¶ *Position of the two rivals.*

The fortune of the duke of Burgundy had now passed its culminating point and was on the decline, while that of the king was in the ascendant.

Charles-of-France was dead; the duke of Burgundy had met his first reverse; the Duke of Brittany had been compelled to cede

certain towns to the king; and what was very ominous, Philippe de Comines [*Come-inn*] had deserted to the royal cause.

This Philippe de Comines was bred up and ennobled by the duke of Burgundy. He was his private friend and his chronicler; but he worshipped the rising sun; and left Burgundy, because he foresaw its glory was on the wane.

§ 3. *Louis XI. executes his vengeance.*

Louis-onze having now leisure to look about him, employed himself in cutting off those who had disturbed his reign.

¶ He first seized Cardinal Balue, a minister of state whom he had made grand almoner of France, intendant of finance, and chief privy-councillor.

This deceitful churchman, whom the king had raised from the lowest ranks, and who enjoyed his full confidence, had entered into a secret correspondence with Charles-of-France and the duke of Burgundy.

His letters being intercepted, the traitor was shut up in an iron cage, in the castle of Loches [*Lōsh*], where he could neither stand upright nor stretch himself at length, and where he remained a captive for 10 years.

¶ He next laid his hands on René duc d'Alençon, who had taken part in all the plots against him. The duke was brought to trial before the Paris *parlement*, and condemned to death; but Louis confined him in an iron cage, as he had done the cardinal Balue.

¶ Jean comte d'Armagnac was the third victim, and a greater villain never existed. He had married his own sister, and was guilty of murder and forgery; but was nevertheless patronized by the wily Louis, who created him duc de Nemours, and gave him immense domains.

This infamous noble paid his patron with the grossest ingratitude, joining every league of the disaffected.

At length the day of vengeance was at hand. The king fell upon his castle at Lectoure, and burnt it to the ground. The count was assassinated; his countess poisoned; his household slain; and even the village in which he lived was utterly destroyed.

LOUIS-ONZE OVERMASTERS THE DUKE OF BURGUNDY.

(1) **Treaty of Pecquigny (1475).** The dukes of Burgundy and Brittany now formed another alliance with Edward IV. of England; and promised to make him king of France, if he would come over with a sufficient army.

Edward listened to the proposal, and landed with his army at Calais, but found nothing prepared. However, he sent a herald to the king, demanding his crown and sceptre.

Nothing of moment occurred till the English army reached St. Quentin, when Louis contrived to win over by bribes the lords Stanley and Howard.

Edward himself was plied with the same "argument," Louis promising to pay him an annual tribute of £60,000, and give the dauphin in marriage to the daughter of the English monarch. Edward was not proof against these tempting offers; signed at Pecquigny [*Péc-keen'-ye*] a treaty of peace; and returned to London.

The duke of Burgundy, finding himself deserted, was obliged to come to terms also; but the principal condition exacted of him was, that he should give up to the king's vengeance the infamous comte de St. Pol.

The comte de St. Pol (1418—1475) was a very type of ingratitude and treachery. He was first attached to the person of Louis while still dauphin, and was laden with favours. When Louis succeeded to the crown, St. Pol, thinking the duke of Burgundy the richer and stronger prince, deserted the king, and joined the *League for the Public Good*. When this league was broken up he ratted again, and was created Lord High Constable of France and Governor of Normandy. Again he intrigued with the dukes of Burgundy and Brittany, and again Louis bribed him back with large dominions in the South of France. For the fourth time he turned against his royal patron, betraying him to the English. His letters being intercepted, he fled to Mons; but was given up to the king, and beheaded.

(2) **Disaster of Granson (1476).** When Charles-le-Téméraire left St. Quentin he marched into Switzerland, with the intention of conquering "the cow-herds," as he termed the inhabitants.

He first laid siege to Granson, a town in Neuchâtel. The town surrendered, and 800 Swiss were either hanged or drowned.

This greatly exasperated the mountaineers, who assembled in large numbers to avenge their countrymen; fell upon the duke's army, like tigers, and put it to rout. The spoil which fell into their hands almost exceeds credibility.

The duke wore round his neck a large diamond, which fell into the hands of a Swiss soldier, who sold it to the Curé of Montagny for five shillings. It was bought of the Curé by Barthelmy May, a dealer, who sold it to the Republic of Genoa. It was next sold to Ludovico Sforza; and at his death, was bought by Julius II. for £5000. It next belonged to the Great Mogul; and is now in the pope's tiara. It is valued at £12,000.

Another diamond picked up on the field was sold at Lucerne, 16 years after the battle, for £1250. It fell into the hands of the house of Braganza; was subsequently purchased by Nicolas-de-Sancey; and under the name of the *Sancey diamond* was set in the crown of France. During the Great Revolution this splendid gem was sold.

A third diamond found on the field was sold to a merchant of Augsburg. Henry VIII. bought it for £5000. At the death of Edward VI. it passed into the hands of queen Mary, and thence to her husband Felipe who took it to Spain; since which time it has remained in the House of Asturia.

The dress hat of the duke, surrounded with precious stones, was also picked up on the field. It was worth £6000.

(3) **Disaster of Charles-le-Téméraire at Morat (1476).** The king was at Lyons when he heard of the disaster at Granson, and went immediately to thank "Our Lady of Puy" for the favour "she had vouchsafed him."

Louis, be it remembered, was a most devoted worshipper of the Virgin. Among his greatest favourites were Our Lady of Cléry, Our Lady of Embrunn, Our Lady of Victories, and now he patronized Our Lady of Puy [*Pwe*].

Charles-le-Téméraire, in the mean time, collected together the remnants of his army to the amount of 40,000 men, resolved to avenge the disaster he had sustained. The Swiss, about half as numerous, went to give him battle.

A most obstinate contest took place on the banks of the lake Morat [*Mo-rah*]. The Burgundians were again defeated with great slaughter. Hundreds perished in the lake; and, it is said, that only one knight of this magnificent host escaped.

The proudest prince of Christendom was crushed by despised shepherds and cowherds. May we not here apply the words of St. Paul, "God hath chosen the weak things of the world to confound the things which are mighty, and base things of the world, and things which are despised, to bring to nought things which are."

(4) **Death of Charles-le-Téméraire (1477).** Charles next laid siege to Nancy [*Narn-see*], resolved to take it or die. It was a foolish headstrong attempt, not only against superior numbers, but with famine, disease, and traitors in his camp.

While sitting before the town, the young duke René approached with 20,000 Swiss; fell upon the besiegers; and Charles was slain, doggedly fighting against superior numbers.

Thus died the last of the great feudatories of France; and thus ended the noble house of Burgundy, which had existed 116 years. Louis immediately took possession of the duchy, and added it to his royal domains.

Marie of Burgundy (1457—1482), only child of the late Duke, was but 20 years old. The whole dukedom was on the point of dissolution. Louis was marching upon it with a vast army, and many parts were in open revolt.

Amidst all these troubles the young duchess was beset with suitors, and felt herself utterly unable to cope with these numerous difficulties. She was very unlike her father in disposition, as well as in personal appearance. Her eyes were hazel, mild and pensive; her complexion beautifully fair; her whole expression and demeanour betokened gentleness and affection.

What was to be done? During the duke's lifetime she had been betrothed to the archduke Maximilian, son of the emperor of Germany; but the marriage had never been consummated.

The archduke was two years younger than the duchess, brave, chivalrous, and accomplished, well-formed in person, graceful in manners, handsome in features, of courteous demeanour, very kind-

hearted, heir to the richest monarch of Europe, and holding in his own right the archduchy of Austria.

These two young nobles, so suited to each other in every respect, were mutually attached; and soon after the death of Charles-le-Téméraire were married (1477).

The duchy of Burgundy, which was a royal fief, and could not be held by a woman, lapsed to the crown; but all the other vast dominions of the late duke remained to Marie, and were transferred to her husband.

What Marie conferred upon her husband were the duchies of Brabant, Limbourg, and Luxembourg; the Franche-Comté; the Comté Palatin; the counties of Flandre, Hainaut, Namur, Artois, Holland, and Zealand; the marquise of Antwerp; and the seignory of Mechlin, constituting what was termed the *Cercle de Bourgogne*.

Marie had scarcely been married four years, when she was killed by a fall from her horse; and from this moment, for many centuries, the houses of France and Austria were in almost ceaseless contention.

At the Union of Utrecht, seven of the counties above named were taken from Austria, and formed into the *Seven United Provinces*, recognized by the Peace of Westphalia in 1648.

By the Peace of Nimègue [*Nim-aig'*], in 1678, the Franche-Comté was united to France; but all the rest of the *Cercle* remained to Austria till the Peace of Campo-Formio and Luneville in 1801.

HOW LOUIS XI. TREMBLED AT THE FEAR OF DEATH.

Louis was now growing old, and trembled at the idea of dying. Having deceived all Europe, he laboured hard to deceive himself also, but without success.

Dreadfully afraid of being murdered, he shut himself up in his castle of Plessis [*Ples-see*] near Tours, dreading the approach of every footstep, and constantly increasing his precautions.

As he felt decay stealing over him he tried to ward off his death by bribing the King of Terrors, and cheating the Almighty. He plundered the people to enrich churches; purchased relics at fabulous prices from all parts of the globe; made pilgrimages; and formed costly processions to different shrines to implore the saints that the north-east wind might not blow, as that wind increased his disorder.

The Virgin, however, was the object of his especial adoration. Her he created countess of Boulogne, and never meditated an act of perfidy and cruelty without imploring her assistance. He wore a little leaden image of her in his cap; and introduced into France the prayer called *Angélus*.*

† Another of his nostrums was a hermit of Calabria, who had the reputation of working miracles, and of restoring the sick to health by

* The "*Angélus*" is a prayer to the Virgin instituted by Urban II. It begins with the words *Angélus Domini nuntiavit Mariæ* (the Angel of the Lord announced to Mary). Then follows the salutation of the angel Gabriel, *Avè, Maria, &c.* (Hail, Mary). The prayer contains three verses, and each verse ends with the salutation, *Avè, Maria*.

This prayer is recited three times a day at the sound of a bell called *Angélus*.

his prayers. The king sent for this charlatan to Tours; and often knelt before him, imploring him in the most abject manner to prolong his life, if it were only for a few days, or even for a few hours.

¶ It was this infamous monarch who first bore the title of *Most Christian King*.* He wished to be thought so. He tried to cajole the saints into believing his lie. He tried to persuade his own heart to do the same; but could never give up his own wickedness, nor sacrifice to religion his worldly cunning.

Only one oath was held binding, and that not from any reverence to its sanctity, but from superstitious dread. He believed the cross of St. Lô to be made of part of the true cross, and that if any one swore falsely upon this emblem he would die before the expiration of the year. This oath, therefore, he never violated.

His physician told him that an astrologer had predicted that he was to die a few days before the king. Louis, therefore, watched over the life of his physician with the most anxious concern; loaded him with presents; and submitted to all his humours.

* He was also the first French monarch styled *His Majesty*.

INSTITUTIONS DUE TO LOUIS XI.

Louis XI., though undoubtedly a very bad man did much to secure the well-being of France. He extended its frontiers towards its present limits; centralized the action of power; made the office of judge permanent; founded *parlements* or royal courts of law at Grenoble, Dijon, and Bordeaux; established a uniformity of costume, as well as of weights and measures; introduced printing or the "Art of multiplying manuscripts by machinery;" constructed roads; organized the artillery; founded the order of St. Michael [*Me-shell*] for all kinds of merit; and created posts.

This last had its origin in the restless suspicious nature of the king impatient to be informed of every event in every corner of his dominion. Relays of horses were provided for his messengers every eight miles; and it was death to employ these horses except on the king's service. Private letters were not transmitted by post till a century and a half after this period.

Louis XI. was truly a most politic sovereign, and inflicted a mortal blow on that second feudalism which rose upon the ruins of the first. The feudal system, sufficiently useful in the 10th century, was utterly out of character in the 15th. In the 10th it saved Europe, and nursed it into greatness; in the 15th it was a cumbrous clog, which impeded the progress of civilization, and prevented the development of the people. Louis had the honour of crushing this incubus; though in the south of France, under the rules of the counts of Albret, Foix, and Armagnac, it maintained its ground for some time longer.

Judicial Astrology, Magic, and Necromancy, were considered real sciences at this period, and to doubt them was looked upon as a mark of profound ignorance and even heresy. Though Friar Bacon wrote a treatise to prove them worthless, yet was he always cited as a proof of their reality.

COSTUMES IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XI.

(1) **The King**, till his health began to decline, was exceedingly careless about his dress. He wore a coarse threadbare cloak, an old high-crowned hat

stuck full of little leaden images; trunk-hose; and shoes slashed at the toes, and strapped over the instep.

Sometimes he changed his hat for a skull-cap edged with a roll of fur, under which he wore a Welsh wig. His cap had only one image outside, but inside were several others to which he made his invocation of *ora pro nobis*, adding the name of the image he addressed.

In his declining years he adopted a very costly costume, in order to conceal his failing health: A gown of rich crimson satin, lined with ermine.

(2) **Gentlemen** wore trunk-hose, and a loose paletot descending below the middle of their legs. Those who were much abroad wore a flexible shirt of linked mail, in consequence of the extreme danger of the roads.

The hair was cut short and square over the forehead, and fell down straight and long over the cheeks and nape of the neck. The usual head-dress was a round cap, turned up with fur, and ornamented in front with a brooch or jewel.

The shoes were slashed at the toes; had a strap over the instep; and fitted the foot. Some persons, however, wore short boots edged with fur. And some continued to wear the long pointed toes.

(3) **Ladies** wore their gowns extremely long; and edged half-a-yard wide with martens' fur, velvet, or some other rich material.

Their head-dress was a huge steeple-cap two feet high, with a veil hanging behind to the ground. These caps were made of velvet, cloth, or linen, according to the rank of the wearer.

Many of them had wings, and resembled the Norman cap still worn by the peasantry of Normandy.

In this reign we trace the first appearance of a bodice: that is the body of the dress laced in front over a stomacher.

PLESSIS-LES-TOURS, THE PRIVATE RESIDENCE OF LOUIS XI.

The chief residence of Louis XI. was the castle of Plessis [*Plessy*] near Tours. The whole demesne, except one narrow path, was thickly sown with traps and guns, calthrops and snarles. Some armed with scythes to shred off the legs of the unwary; others designed to hold him prisoner; and others to pierce his foot.

The castle had three external walls, battlemented and turreted from space to space. Around the uttermost, and between the two others were deep ditches full of water. The coping was armed with a *chevaux-de-frise*.

All the windows faced the inner court; and in the other parts of the castle was no aperture larger than a shot-hole. The entrance was guarded with portcullis and drawbridge; and, in order to reach the castle, it was necessary to traverse a tortuous path flanked with artillery, and defended by three gates, at each of which a different pass-word was required.

Three hundred gentlemen of the best blood of Scotland, called the King's Life-guard, stood sentinels both night and day with their harquebuss in hand, ready to fire at any intruder.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XI.

The only men that stand out with any degree of prominence in this reign are Tristan, Olivier, and Galiotti Martivallé, three infamous tools of the unprincipled king.

Tristan L'Ermite (1405—1493) generally called the *provost Tristan* to distinguish him from his son who was a poet, was dubbed knight on the field of battle by Dunois [*Dune-wor*], for his great courage in entering a breach.

He was afterwards attached to the royal person, and was the main instrument

in carrying into effect the nefarious schemes of his wily master. Louis was so fond of him that he called him his *gossip*.

Tristan was a stout middle-sized man, with a hang-dog visage, and most ominous smile. When he looked you in the face you felt that an "evil eye" was upon you, and shuddered.

Olivier le Dain (1420—1484) was born in Flanders, like his brother in iniquity Tristan. He was first appointed barber to the king, but so ingratiated himself into favour as to be created comte de Meulent [*cônt de Meul*].

Olivier [*O-liv'-i-a*] was a small, dark, ill-favoured wretch, cadaverous and meagre; whose black silk jerkin and hose, without coat, cloak, or cassock, formed a dress ill-qualified to set off to advantage a very ordinary person.

His eyes were penetrating and quick, but kept most constantly on the ground. His manners were cringing. He spoke in whispers; and walked or rather glided along with the stealthy pace of a cat.

The barber count rendered himself ridiculous by his fine airs and pomposity. He was nicknamed *le Dain* from his unscrupulous cunning; and, after the death of his patron, was hanged as a common felon.

Galiotti Martivalle, the king's astronomer, was a native of Narni, in Italy; and author of a treatise called *Things not Generally Known*. He was decoyed by Louis from the court of Matthias Corvinus, King of Hungary; and had private apartments in the castle of Plessis-lès-Tours [*Ples-see lay-Toor'*].

Martivallé was tall, bulky, stately, and rather corpulent. His features were dignified and noble; his beard black, thick, and long; and his frame masculine. He excelled in all athletic exercises, but was of very luxurious habits. All his instruments were made of gold or silver; his room was most sumptuously appointed; his dress was a long robe of richest Genôa velvet, with ample sleeves clasped with gold frogs, lined with sable, and fastened round the waist by a broad belt of virgin parchment, inscribed with the signs of the zodiac.

CHARLES VIII. L'AFFABLE.

REIGNED 15 YEARS. FROM 1483 TO 1498.

Contemporary with Edward V., Richard III., and Henry VII.

Kingdom. 1491, Brittany, the last of the great fiefs, united to the crown by marriage. 1493, Roussillon lost.

Married. Anne of Brittany.

Issue. Three children, all of whom died young.

Royal Residence. The Palais-des-Tournelles.

Brothers-in-law. Louis Duke of Orleans his successor, and the Duke de Bourbon lord of Beaujeu.

History of the reign "Histoire de Charles VIII." by Philippe de Ségur; "Vie de Charles VIII." by Varillas.

Contemporary Event. America discovered 1492.

Charles VIII. was 14 years old when his father died. He had passed his life in seclusion in the castle of Amboise [*Arnb-woiz*]; and constant ill-health had deformed his body, without souring his temper. Philippe de Comines [*Come-inn*] says of him, "He was the most sweet-natured prince that ever lived, and never breathed a syllable to irritate or cause offence."

His face was pale; eyes unnaturally bright; and speech defective. He had no perseverance, being unable to fix his attention long upon anything; and, being wholly uneducated by his jealous father, was profoundly ignorant.

Regency. Although Charles had attained his legal majority, yet was he so backward and feeble, that his sister Anne continued to act as his guardian. Her authority was disputed by his two brothers-in-law, who called together a States-General under the hope of being appointed Regents. This the deputies declined to sanction, but created one of them president of the council, and the other constable of France.

The duke of Orleans, appointed to the former office, wholly engrossed in his own pleasures, paid no attention to business, and was soon driven from the council by Anne his ambitious sister-in-law, who was virtually Regent, and even made her authority respected by her prudence and vigour.

A league being formed against her, she circumvented all their designs. The duke of Orleans, one of the number, fled to Brittany; but Anne followed him thither, got him into her hands, and shut him up in prison. The other leaders of the conspiracy she executed.

The young king, on his 21st birthday, shook off the trammels of his imperious sister; liberated the duke of Orleans from prison; and married Anne of Brittany. It was by this alliance that the duchy of Brittany was united to France.

As Anne survived the king, her duchy would have been again severed from the crown, if Louis XII. had not married her.

The Italian War (1494—1496). Ignorant of men and state affairs, wholly uninstructed in history, and left to indulge his imagination in romance, Charles longed to emulate the fabulous deeds of Charlemagne and his paladins.

With this object in view, he concluded disadvantageous treaties with neighbouring princes. To the king of Aragon he gave the province of Roussillon; to the emperor of Austria, Franche-Comté and Artois; while to Henry VII. of England he paid a ruinous sum of money. Having effected these treaties he started for Italy, resolved to win back the kingdom of Naples, which had once belonged to the house of Anjou [*Arn-zjoo.*]

With an army of 32,000 men, and a formidable park of artillery, he crossed the Alps. Every one fled before him; and he entered Naples in triumph, without having struck a blow (1495).

All Europe was in alarm. Spain, Austria, Venice, and the Pope, formed a league against him; and Charles, apprised of the danger, withdrew from Italy, leaving Gilbert de Montpensier [*Môn-parn-se-a*] viceroy of the conquered kingdom.

No sooner had he retired, than Montpensier was attacked, and compelled to evacuate the country. Thus was Naples won in five months' time, and lost again more rapidly than won.

Death of Charles VIII. (1498). Upon his return to France, Charles devoted himself most assiduously to the affairs of state, and resolved to imitate the policy of St. Louis.

He set about important reforms; established a Supreme Council for regulating the affairs of war and peace; dismissed all unjust judges and unworthy ministers; attended personally to the complaints of the poor; and meditated a great reduction of the public taxes.

How long this new fit would have lasted it is impossible to say, as he was suddenly cut off in the 28th year of his age and the 15th of his reign.

He was conducting his queen to a gallery that she might see a game of tennis in the fosse below. As he passed under a door-way, he struck his head against the lintel, and the blow brought on a fit of apoplexy, which proved fatal.

He was greatly beloved for his amiability and kindness, and his reign was not without its advantages to France; but no one ever reigned who knew less of the real business of a great sovereign.

HISTORY OF THE DRAMA (continued from page 107).

PART II. FARCE AND LOW COMEDY.

Charles VIII. was passionately fond of dancing, tournaments, and theatrical exhibitions.

In his reign, *mysteries* and *moralities* were superseded by short comedies, in which the public characters and manners of the day were turned into ridicule.

Several of the gay young men of Paris formed themselves into companies for these pieces; the two principal were the Lawyer's company and the Tradesmen's company.

The members of the former were called *Basochians*, from Basoche, a corruption of the Latin word *basilica* (a royal palace). Members of the legal profession were termed Gentlemen of the Palace or Clerks of the Basoche, because they exercised their calling in the Palais-de-Justice, once a Basilica or royal palace.

The basochians continued to perform till François-premier put an end to these entertainments, because the farces grew too personal and licentious.

The other company was called *les Enfants sans Souci* (the "Care-for-Nothings"); and the manager "the Prince of Fools."

These pieces were not exhibited in monasteries and churches, like *Mysteries* and *Moralities*, but in halls; and the Parisians flocked in crowds to witness them, especially that called *Master Pierre Pathelin*, an immense favourite.

Till the time of Molière [*Mo-le-air*] the French had no legitimate comedy, and even Molière pandered to the popular taste in his *Tricks of Scapin*, *Imaginary Invalid*, and *Upstart Gentleman*. Scarron, Dancourt, Le Sage, and several others continued, even into the 18th century, the same buffooneries; but now the taste for them seems to have gone wholly out of fashion.

Le Bœuf Gras. Another amusement introduced in this reign is the triumphal procession, on Shrove Tuesday, of the fat Ox, called in French "*La Marche du Bœuf-Gras*" (*Bu-Grah*).

The butcher of Paris who purchases the prize Ox, decorates it with ribbons, gilds its horns and hoofs, puts a fillet on its brows, and leads it through the

principal streets of the city, accompanied by a host of followers dressed in ridiculous costumes, and by bands of music playing on ridiculous instruments. The whole is a farcical representation of a procession of Roman priests going to offer sacrifice.

The custom is still popular. The butcher's expenses are generally covered by donations from the ambassadors, noblemen, ministers, and wealthy citizens, before whose houses the procession stops.

The **Fete de L'Ane**, introduced into Paris about the same time, was far more objectionable, as it was a gross caricature of the flight of our Divine Redeemer into Egypt.

In this fête; a young woman with a child in her arms was seated on an ass, and led in procession to the cathedral church, accompanied by the bishops and their clergy.

As they went along chanting the appointed canticles, the crowd answered by cries of *hinha! hinha!* in imitation of the braying of an ass.

This blasphemous ceremony was, at one time, introduced even into England, but was soon forbidden. In France it continued to be observed till the close of the 16th century (*see p. 237*).

Other fantastic processions were "la fête de la bouteille," "la fête des cornards," "la fête des fous," and "la fête du Géant aux Ours" on the third of July; but it would occupy too much space to enter upon this subject more fully.

LOUIS XII. LE PERE DU PEUPLE.

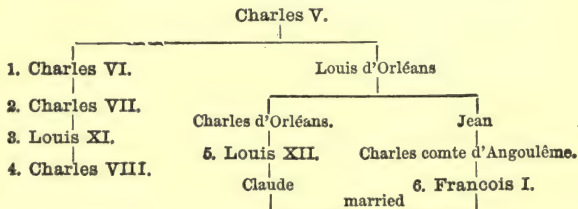
REIGNED 17 YEARS. FROM 1498 TO 1515. *Contemporary with Henry VII. and VIII.*

Kingdom increased by his own appanage of Orléanais.

Married thrice. First, Jeanne de France, daughter of Louis XI., whom he divorced. Next, Anne de Bretagne, widow of the last king. Thirdly, Mary, daughter of Henry VII. of England.

Issue. Two daughters, Claude and Renée, by his second wife. The former of these married the duc d'Angoulême, afterwards François I. The latter married the duke of Ferrara.

History of the Reign. "Histoire de Louis XII.," by Seyssel, and another by Rœderer.



As Charles VIII. left no son, the heir to the throne was Louis duc d'Orléans. He was grandson of Louis, the brother of Charles VI.; and son of that duke of Orleans who was taken prisoner at Azincourt.

Louis XII. was 36 years old when he came to the crown, and had been married 20 years to Jeanne de France, the deformed daughter of Louis XI.

This marriage had been one of compulsion; and although Jeanne was a very virtuous woman, Louis no sooner ascended the throne than he obtained a divorce, and married Anne of Brittany, the late king's widow.

The twelfth Louis was one of the few kings of France who were entirely estimable, sober, sweet-natured, modest, laborious, fond of knowledge, religious, benevolent, and economical.

His first acts were both wise and useful. He retained the ministers of the late king; lessened the taxes by one-third; regulated the finance department; and created a sovereign court to adjust the respective privileges of king and people.

This court introduced some valuable reforms; and restrained the political licence of the University, which was no longer allowed to impede the collection of taxes, or interfere in the jurisdiction of the law-courts.

Besides king of France, Louis XII. assumed the titles of king of Jerusalem, king of the Two Sicilies, and duke of Mil'an. The last two titles involved him in an Italian war; and ultimately embroiled him with England, Germany, and Spain.

Milan laid claim to (1499). Immediately after his marriage with Anne of Brittany, Louis XII. sent a powerful army into Mil'an to enforce his claim to that dukedom.

For two centuries, the reigning house of Mil'an had been the family of the Visconti. Galeazzo-Visconti married Isabella of France; and their daughter Valent'ina married Louis duc d'Orléans, the grandfather of Louis-douze.

About the time of Galeazzo's [*Gally-at-zo's*] marriage, was born, at Cotignola [*Co-tin-yö-lah'*], a labourer named Atten'dölo, who became one of the most renowned captains of the world, and assumed the name of Sforza (*the robust or vigorous*). This Sforza died in the prime of life, leaving behind one natural son Francisco, who inherited all his father's energy, and adopted the assumed surname.

Francisco Sforza married Bianca, the natural daughter and only child of Philip-Maria, the last of the Visconti-dukes of Mil'an.

Now comes the Gordion knot, which involved Italy and almost all Europe in a long and destructive war.

Philip-Maria-Visconti died, leaving no legitimate heir; and five candidates laid claim to the succession: Francisco Sforza, the republic of Venice, the king of Naples, the duke of Savoy, and Charles d'Orléans the father of Louis.

Sforza, being general of the troops, secured to himself the dukedom. His son succeeded without opposition; but died after a short reign of ten years, leaving an infant son under the guardianship of Ludovico his uncle.

Ludovico, surnamed *The Moor*, murdered his young nephew and usurped the title; but Europe was scandalized, and war threatened him on all sides.

It was about this time, that Louis XII. was elevated to the crown of France, and thought it a favourable moment to lay claim to the duchy of Mil'an, as the grandson of Valen'tina Visconti.

Of course, his title was wholly without foundation, but he was a very powerful king, and the pope, together with England, Spain, and Venice, supported his claim. So he sent an army into Mil'an to drive out the usurper.

Ludovico the Moor fled to Germany; Mil'an was declared a part of the French empire; and Louis, having appointed a governor over the duchy, returned to Paris.

Scarcely had he entered his own capital, when the Milanese revolted. Ludovico returned with a considerable army; was betrayed by his own soldiers into the hands of the French; and kept in prison till death.

Naples claimed (1501). Master of Mil'an, he next turned his attention to the Two Sicilies, aided by Don Fernando of Spain. The kingdom was easily won, but the conquerors could not agree in the division of the spoil, and their contention led to a war between France and Spain.

War with Spain (1503). Fernádo sent into Naples his celebrated General Gonzalvo of Cordöva, and gained two consecutive victories over his rival, one at Saminára and the other at Cerignöla' [*Chey-rin-yö-lah*].

Louis collected three fresh armies, two of which marched against Spain, and the third was advancing towards Naples, when the sudden death of the pope threw all Italy into confusion.

It was rumoured, that Alexander the VI. and his natural son Cæsar Borgia had both swallowed, by mistake, a potion drugged for a certain cardinal, invited to their board. By this untoward event Louis lost his most powerful ally; the French were everywhere repulsed; and Naples was lost to them a second time.

In this campaign, the chevalier Bayard performed prodigies of valour. His defence of the bridge over the Garigliano [*Gar-rin-li-ar'-no*], against the whole Spanish army, is considered one of the most heroic acts upon record.

Venice taken (1509). In the Italian campaign, Venice had always sided with France; the king ought, therefore, to have conciliated this state, not only from gratitude, but also from policy. Instead of so doing, he cast his eyes upon it, and determined to make himself master of it.

With this view, he formed with the emperor of Germany, the king of Arágon, and the pope, an alliance called the *League of Cambray*; the object of which was to seize upon Venetia, and parcel it out among themselves.

Louis entered first into the field; gained the brilliant victory of Agnadello [*An-yar-del-lo*]; and Venice fell at once into his hands.

The **Holy Alliance** (1511, 1512). This was not what the Pope wanted; and he regretted ever having joined the league. He soon found an excuse for breaking with Louis, and formed another league to dispossess him of Italy. Spain, Venice, and Switzerland, entered heartily into this scheme, and signed what is termed *The Holy Alliance*.

Immediately Louis XII. heard thereof, he placed a formidable army under the command of Gaston-de-Foix [*Fwor*], his nephew, who gained three victories over the allies in as many months:

First, he delivered Bologna [*Bo-lone-yah*], which they had besieged. Next, he recaptured Brescia [*Bres-chê-ah*]. And, lastly, he won the brilliant victory of **Ravenna**.

This last was a most glorious triumph for the French; but the young commander, surnamed the "thunderbolt of Italy," was left dead upon the field; and, with his death, the success of Louis terminated.

REVERSES AND DEATH OF LOUIS XII. (FROM 1513 TO 1514).

After the victory of Ravenna, Louis suspended the pope; but the pope called a council in which 83 bishops assembled, and unanimously confirmed his title. He soon, however, died, and was succeeded by Leo X., the sworn enemy of France, who immediately entered into an alliance with England, Germany, and Spain, called the League of Malines [*Ma-leen*].

Genoa revolted; Sforza, the son of the captive, was placed by the Swiss over Milan; and Henry VIII. landed in Flanders with 18,000 men.

A battle was fought at Guinegate, near Calais, between the English and French, called the *Battle of the Spurs*; because the French made more use of their spurs in flight, than of their swords in fight.

Discouraged by these successive reverses, Louis made a treaty of peace with all his enemies; and, in order to conciliate England, married the young princess Mary, sister of the reigning king. This he was enabled to do as he was at the time a widower.

The marriage, however, proved fatal to him. He was 53 years old at the time; and, to please his young bride, he abandoned his quiet regular life, and entered into all the gaieties of the times: He no longer dined at eight o'clock in the morning as heretofore, but at the fashionable hour of noon; instead of retiring to rest at sunset, he sat up till midnight at routs and balls; he lived freely; and so exhausted his strength, that he died within three months.

His young widow returned to England, and married her first lover, Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk.

Anecdotes of Louis XII. Louis-douze was no hero, and no politician; yet was he a very popular prince, and several of his sayings are worthy of all praise:

¶ When he came to the crown he found several persons, high in office, who had been his determined enemies while he was duke of Orleans. They naturally thought he would deprive them of their rank; but he magnanimously said, "No. It behoves not the king of France to revenge the wrongs of the duke of Orleans."

¶ In the battle with the Venetians, his staff officers expostulated with him for needlessly exposing himself to danger, and told him to retire. "I am not afraid," said he; "but if any one else is, let him get behind me as soon as possible."

¶ One day, his court represented to him that his economical habits savoured of parsimony. "Well," said the king, "I prefer to hear my courtiers laugh at my parsimony, than to see my people mourn at my extravagance."

¶ His wise regulations for the administration of justice, and his prudent expenditure of the public money, caused him to be called the *Father of the People*, the most honourable title that a king could obtain; and Louis XII., on the whole, was not undeserving of the honour.

REVIEW OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

During the 15th century the world had assumed a new face. Great wars had weakened the aristocracy, rallied the people round their sovereigns, and given a prodigious development to the feeling of national independence.

The three great European nations, England, Spain, and France, had consolidated themselves; and all authority had passed into the hands of the ruling monarchs.

The Hanseat'ic league, composed of 80 cities, and covering all the northern shores of Germany, had lost its commercial pre-eminence; and the chief commercial marts were the cities of the Lower Rhine and of Holland.

In the 10th and 11th centuries, Amalfi, Pisa [*Pee-sah*], Genoa, Florence, and Venice, were the chief marts of foreign trade; but in the 15th century, Venice was humbled, Genoa and Florence greatly weakened, and Naples had lost its prestige.

The discovery of America was the ruin of the Italian republics. So long as the Mediterranean sea was the medium of commercial intercourse, Venice, Florence, and Genoa were centres of the civilized world, and possessed the entire trade of the east; but when the Portuguese opened up a communication with India round the Cape of Good Hope, the Italian republics lost their monopoly, and America offered to Europe a new field of enterprise.

The 15th century is, without doubt, more crowded with great events than any other period of the world.

America was discovered, and a new world added to Europe; the route to India was made by doubling the Cape of Good Hope; and printing gave a new power to the hands of the people. The use of gunpowder introduced a new element into war; diplomacy was devised by Louis XI.; sovereigns began to feel the importance of the balance of power; and the church was about to be shaken in the sieve of the Reformation.

All these forces were in their infancy, but developed themselves in the next century. The 15th was the century of mighty births, and the 16th the age of struggle, movement, and progress.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XII.

In the latter part of the 15th century, France was inundated with the productions of a new race of rhymers, whose affectation was to torture verse into every sort of absurdity. Some made the last two or three words of every line gingle; some divided each line into two parts, in such a manner that the half lines conveyed one idea, and the whole lines another; some began every line or indeed every word with a particular letter; some made their poem form a particular shape, such as a cross, vase, heart, or altar, by varying the length

of the lines. These literary trifles indicate, but too plainly, the bad taste of an age just emerging from ignorance and barbarism.

Amidst this crowd of bad poets, it is cheering to point out two prose-writers of better taste : Claude de Seyssel and Philippe de Comines [*Come-inn*].

Seyssel (1450—1520), called the *Father of Modern French Literature*, was the author of two works, one entitled "The Singular History of Louis XII.," and the other the "Great Monarchy of France." They are especially celebrated for being the first prose works written in French with any degree of purity.

Philippe de Comines (1445—1511), Seigneur d'Argentin, was the author of a history of Louis XI. and Charles VIII. called "Memoirs." This work is especially valuable, as the information is most accurate, the style unaffected and easy, and the reflections solid and judicious.

Comines was a lively-looking man, with an eye of great vivacity ; but there was an expression of gravity and deep thought, especially about the mouth and upper lip. He saw and judged rapidly, but was sage and slow in forming resolutions and expressing opinions.

He was tall and had a noble presence ; was no less skilled in martial exercises, than deeply versed in literature ; altogether, he was one of the most distinguished characters of the age.

In this period lived many very eminent men.

In *England*, Cardinal Wolsey.

In *Italy*, Lorenzo de' Medici, Machiavelli, and the great painters Raphael, Corregio, Michael Angelo, Titian, and Leonardo da Vinci.

In *Germany*, Albert Durer, Erasmus, Copernicus, and Luther.

In *Portugal*, Vasco di Garma.

In *Sweden*, Gustavus Vasa.

MONARCHY ABSOLUTE.

THE PERIOD CALLED BY THE FRENCH "RENAISSANCE"

Includes the Reign of François I. and Henri II.

FRANCOIS I. PERE DES LETTRES.

REIGNED 32 YEARS. FROM 1515 TO 1547. *Contemporary with Henry VIII.*

Married twice. First, Claude daughter of Louis XII., by which he united the two houses of Valois and Orléans. Next, Eleonore, widow of Emmanuel king of Portugal, and sister of Charles-quint emperor of Germany.

Issue by his first wife, François who died at the age of 19, Henri his successor, Charles duke of Orléans and Angoulême, and four daughters, the third of whom (Madeleine) married James V. of Scotland.

Chief Residences. The Louvre, Fontainebleau, &c.

History of the Reign. "Vie de François I.," by Varillas ; and "Histoire de François I." by Gaillard.

Contemporary Events. Luther, by his preaching, laid the basis of the Reformation. The celebrated council of Trent was held.

INTRODUCTION.

Before we can commence the history of France, in the reign of the first François, it will be advisable to take a brief glance at some of the contemporary sovereigns of Europe.

(1) By far the most important of these was *Charles-quint*, the most powerful monarch of the West since the days of Charlemagne. He was emperor of Germany, king of Spain, count of Flanders, and lord of all Italy. The Indies and their treasures, Mexico and Peru, obeyed him. In a word, his empire was so vast that the sun never set thereon.

He was indefatigable in business, diplomatic and far-sighted, firm of purpose, slow in deliberation, and prompt in execution. He had a cool head, a just judgment, and a tenacity of will which surmounted all opposition.

At the age of 58 he abdicated; retired to a monastery where he lingered for ten years; and died a few months before Henri II. the son and successor of François his great rival.

(2) The next most important contemporary sovereign was *Henry VIII. of England*, who was born one year and died two months before François.

In many points the two young kings were not unlike each other: Both were arbitrary, arrogant, and despotic; headstrong, ungovernable, and over-reaching; proud, intolerant, and faithless to their word; both tarnished their glory by profligacy; both patronized letters and the arts; both were magnificent in their courts, made the monarchy of their kingdom absolute, were handsome in person, and of more than ordinary stature; both were unjustifiable in conduct, but left their nations extremely prosperous.

(3) The third person to whom reference should be made is pope *Leo X.*, son of the celebrated Lorenzo de' Medici, who was raised to the papal chair about two years before the accession of François-premier.

Like his three great contemporaries, Leo X. was a munificent patron of learning and the arts; magnificent in his tastes, voluptuous, and totally devoid of the true spirit of religion.

François-premier was the son of Charles d'Orléans, comte d'Angoulême, a descendant of the second son of Charles V. of France. He was brave, high-spirited, and proud; absolute but generous, frank and open, chivalrous and princely, splendid in his tastes, gallant in his pleasures, gay in disposition, and though a tyrant extremely popular.

Despotism and the patronage of the arts were the regal fashions of the age; and the people seemed quite content to abandon their liberty, provided they remained prosperous.

First Italian Campaign (1515). Immediately on his accession, the young monarch arrogated the title of *duke of Milan*, and proceeded to enforce his claim by an army of 26,000 men, which he led into Italy. He was fiercely attacked at **Marignan** [*Marin'-yan*] by 20,000 Swiss, but after two days remained master of the field, and Milan fell at once into his hands. This combat, from the great valour displayed, is called the *Battle of the Giants*. The slaughter on both sides was great; as many as 6000 French and 10,000 Swiss being numbered with the dead.

Field of the Cloth of Gold (1520). When Maximilian died, the kings of France and Spain were both candidates for the empire of Germany. The latter was elected, and, from that moment, Charles-quint and François of France were irreconcilable enemies.

François immediately sought the alliance of England, and invited Henry VIII. to a conference. The interview took place at Guines,*

* Guines pronounce Geen, the G hard.

near Calais; and so great was the magnificence displayed on both sides, that the interview has ever since been called *The Field of the Cloth of Gold*.

After three weeks spent in festivity, the two kings signed an alliance, which, however, was utterly nugatory, as the emperor had, in the mean time, won over Wolsey to his interest, by a promise of the papacy.

FIRST RUPTURE BETWEEN FRANCOIS AND CHARLES-QUINT.

(1521—1524).

Hostilities at length began in earnest. Charles of Germany sent an army to invade the north of France, and succeeded in taking several places, while the defeat of marshal de Lautrec at **Bicocco** [*Be-cok-ko*], involved the entire loss of Mil'an to the French nation.

¶ Next year, another army was sent into Italy, with the hope of detaching Naples from the emperor; but the campaign was a total failure; every step was an error or a reverse; and, in a few months, the brilliant French army was decimated by disease.

A retreat was ordered. Bayard, who had the command of the rear-guard, was shot in the spine as he was crossing the Sesia; and thus perished the noblest man in France, a "knight without fear and without reproach."

This noble chevalier (1476—1524), who reminds us of Sir Philip Sydney, throws a lustre over this period; and never knight more richly deserved the honour of being called *Le chevalier sans peur et sans reproche*.

He first signalized himself under Charles VIII. Under Louis XII. he mainly contributed to the conquest of Italy. Like Horatius Coclès, the Roman, he defended alone a bridge (*Garigliano*) against a whole army; and, like Fabricius, he rejected with indignation the offer of a villain to poison pope Julius II. with whom he was at war.

When his body was carried to France, even the enemy saluted it with military honours; and every nobleman on the line turned out to pay it respect as it passed by.

Battle of Pavia (1525). François still persisted in his design of recovering what he had lost, and commanded his army in person this time. He delivered Marseilles, which was besieged by the Constable de Bourbon; crossed the Alps; and retook the city of Mil'an.

He next laid siege to Pavia [*Par-vè-ah*], contrary to the advice of his most able officers. A desperate battle ensued, in which all the flower of his army was slain, and he himself, wounded and disabled, was taken prisoner. Being conducted to Madrid, he wrote to his mother, *All is lost, Madame, except honour*.

After a year's captivity, he was set at liberty, on condition of renouncing all claim to the duchy of Mil'an; yielding to the emperor the provinces of Flanders, Artois, and Burgundy; restoring Bourbon to all his titles and possessions; and sending his two sons hostages, till these several conditions were fulfilled.

Disgraceful as were the terms of the *Treaty of Madrid*, the perjury of the king was still more so. No sooner had he gained his freedom, than he sent envoys to the emperor to inform him that he never intended to keep his promise, which, being extorted from him, was not binding.

SECOND RUPTURE BETWEEN FRANÇOIS I. AND CHARLES-QUINT.

(1527—1529.)

The pope, jealous of the mighty power of Charles, now formed an alliance with France, and was joined by England, Venice, and Milan.

Upon being apprised of this, the emperor sent the duc de Bourbon to lay siege to Rome. The city was taken, but Bourbon was slain. A frightful massacre ensued; 8000 Romans perished, and the pope fled for safety to the castle of St. Angelo.

A pestilence now broke out in the imperial army, committing such havoc, that of all the host which entered Italy, scarcely 500 survived to leave it.

A capitulation followed, which put an end to the Italian enterprises. It was signed at *Cambray*; and was supplementary to the treaty signed at *Madrid* three years previously.

By the terms of this treaty, François agreed to renounce the suzerainty of Flanders and Artois; to pay for the ransom of his two sons the sum of £400,000; to abandon Venice and all his other allies to the vengeance of Charles-quint; and to marry Eleonore, the sister of his imperial rival.

This shameful treaty, which threw dishonour on France in the eyes of all Europe, was named *la paix des Dames*, because its terms were settled by two ladies, viz. the king's mother on behalf of France, and Margaret of Austria, the emperor's aunt, on behalf of Germany.

François I. improves the peace (1529—1535). François being now at peace, built the town of le-Havre [*Harv'r*], and began to construct several royal palaces. He assembled round him the most learned men and celebrated artists of the world; became a munificent patron of the arts; and was surnamed the *Mæcenas of France*.

This part of his reign has cast a halo round his name, and handed him down to posterity as a great and glorious monarch. His breaches of faith, his disregard of morality, his unfortunate wars, and his numerous wickednesses, are forgotten, because their consequences were less permanent; so that, contrary to the general rule, the *good* which he did has been engraved in brass, while his *evil* manners were buried in his tomb.

THIRD RUPTURE BETWEEN FRANÇOIS I. AND CHARLES V.

(1535—1538).

An ambassador of France having been beheaded at Milan, was the immediate cause of the third rupture between France and Germany.

François sent an army against the governor Sforza, the author of the outrage ; but before it reached Italy, Sforza died.

The king now laid claim to the duchy, and also to Piedmont as the inheritance of his mother ;* but, at this juncture, Charles-quint returned with a fine army, which had been employed against the pirates of Tunis, and vowed to carry on a war of extermination against his unworthy brother-in-law.

A number of places fell into his hands ; but the progress of his triumphs was stopped by Montmorency, who laid all Provence waste ; and the emperor was not unwilling to come to terms of peace. A truce was signed at Nice [*Neece*], and the two rivals agreed to abstain from all further hostilities for the space of ten years.

Charles V. visits France (1539). At this period, Flanders was a part of the vast German empire ; and the ever-rebelling people of Ghent [*Gah'ng*][†] revolted again, because they were oppressed by heavy imposts, especially a tax on salt.

Charles-quint asked permission to march through France on his route to Flanders ; and promised, in return, to cede to the dauphin the duchy of Mil'an. The permission was readily granted, and the emperor was entertained at Paris, for several days, with uninterrupted festivities ; but no sooner had he passed the frontiers of France, than he refused to fulfil his promise, and a fourth rupture broke out between the royal brothers-in-law.

FOURTH RUPTURE BETWEEN FRANÇOIS I. AND CHARLES-QUINT.

(1542.)

François, having allied himself to Turkey, laid siege to Nice, and invaded Italy ; but the Italians placed an army of 24,000 men at the disposal of the emperor, and denounced the invader as the enemy of their country.

Charles, in the meantime, formed an alliance with England, and attacked France at five different points at once ; but the danger was averted by the Turks, who caused a diversion by threatening the empire. Both parties, therefore, patched up another truce, François because he was unequal to the contest, and Charles to defend his own dominions.

Third War with the Albigenses (1545—1547). The kingdom was now once more at peace ; but the rest of the reign was blackened by a relentless persecution of the Protestants.

* She was the daughter of Philip II. duke of Savoy, who died 1497, and was succeeded by his son Philebert II. Philebert died in 1504, and was succeeded by his brother Charles III., brother-in-law of Charles-quint of Germany.

† In one of the libraries of Flanders there is a work entitled "A History of the 120 Revolts of the good city of Ghent."

Several thousands of "Albigenses" lived on the confines of Provence, and had lately entered into communion with Calvin, the great reformer.

The king commissioned John, baron of Oppido, to root them out; and the baron but too faithfully executed this shameful task. Twenty-two towns were sacked and destroyed. The inhabitants, surprised at midnight, were hunted to death by the light of their own blazing houses. Men, women, and children, were ruthlessly cut down; gardens laid waste; trees uprooted; and the pretty well-peopled country of these quiet villages converted into a howling wilderness.

¶ At length after a reign of 32 years, François I. died of disease, brought on by dissipation. His rival Henry VIII. had been gathered to his fathers only two months previously.

COURT OF FRANÇOIS I.

The court of François I. was remarkable for its vivacity, gaiety, and splendour. It was an eternal spring, wherein shone the most beautiful and noblest ladies of the land, dressed in the most sumptuous apparel, and leavened with a fearful proportion of unblushing wickedness.

There were, however, two distinct parties, called the *lilacs* and the *blues*. Those distinguished by lilac colours were the friends of Madame d'Etampes [*Da-tarmp*], the blues were the partisans of Diane-de-Poitiers.

The secret friends of reform belonged to the former, the rigid Catholics to the latter. Chief among the "lilacs" was the witty and merry Charles d'Orléans, second son of the king; while the most noted of the "blues" was the insipid and insignificant-looking dauphin.

Amongst the motley throng, were many whose names have become immortal. There, for example, might have been seen Henri Etienne, a Huguenot at heart, dressed in his long robe, talking of literature to Madame d'Etampes. At the other end of the chamber, Peter Strozzi, the Florentine refugee, chattering to one of his countrymen attached to the suite of the dauphiness. Old Montmorency the high constable, Claude duc de Guise, the chancellor Poyet, François Rabelais the wit, and Clemon Marot the favourite poet, formed their respective groups; while Triboulet, the king's jester, rolled along the floor between the legs of the promenaders, or started to his feet to utter some licensed folly, or piquant calumny.

What seems most strange to us, who live in the reign of Queen Victoria, is that Eléonore the lawful queen, the haughty Italian beauty Marie de Medicis wife of the dauphin, and Marguerite of Navarre, should have sanctioned with their presence such women as Madame d'Etampes and Diane-de-Poitiers; and that virtuous mothers should have brought their young daughters to so infamous a court as this.

Duchesse d'Etampes (1508—1576). Mdle. d'Heilly first appears in history as maid of honour to Louise, mother of the king. She was only 18 years old when she attracted the notice of the susceptible François, who forthwith forsook the countess of Châteaubriant, to attach himself to the new favourite.

In order to throw a flimsy veil over his amour, the king induced Jean-de-Brosse to marry the young lady; and, in requital of this service, he created him comte de Penthievre [*Pon-tê-ave*], duc d'Etampes [*Da-tarmp*], and governor of Brittany.

The duchess was extremely beautiful. Her hair was a golden chesnut colour; her complexion perfect; her hands and feet extremely small; her figure faultless; her carriage dig-

nified and graceful. She was a leopard and a panther in disposition, uncertain as the one, and relentless as the other. At one time gentle as a gazelle, at another furious as a tiger.

Her ways were marvellously captivating. She subjugated the amorous monarch by a mixture of imperiousness and docility; exacting from him an almost slavish attention, but shutting her eyes to his caprices.

In conversation she was wholly unequalled. She could, by her manner, make the most trivial remark pleasing; could suggest so skilfully, that the king believed the suggestion to be his own; could draw him out so happily, that he always left her pleased with himself; and could listen to him as one whose whole delight was to hang upon his breath. In short, she flattered his self-love more by her eye, her attention, and her expression, than by her words; and was justly called "the most beautiful of clever women, and the most clever of beauties."

Contemporary with the duchess d'Etampes was Diane de Poitiers, the courtesan of the dauphin. These two women hated each other as rivals, and filled the court with their contentions and intrigues. When Henri II. came to the crown, of course the duchess d'Etampes was banished from the court.

Triboulet (1487-1536). Every king of France from Hugues-Capet to Louis XIV. had his jester or court fool, who wore a livery called his *motley*. Triboulet wore a tight dress of blue and white silk. On his back, legs, and cap, were emblazoned the royal arms. His feet were covered with red morocco slippers with peaked toes; and his cap was conical, adorned with the usual ass's ears, a cockscomb, and a little silver bell. He had a wooden sword, as all fools had, a wand with a fool's head on the top, and a bagpipe.

In person, he was small and extremely crooked. His head and ears were enormously large; his mouth like a barn door; and his nose more prominent than that of the king himself, who "had the largest nose of any man in France, except his jester." The forehead of the royal fool was very low and narrow; his chest flat and hollow; his back greatly humped; his legs short and twisted; his arms long and slender; and, altogether, he more resembled a monkey than a man.

The witty sayings attributed to Triboulet [*Trib-oo-lay*] would fill a volume. Indeed, almost every joke is fathered upon him by the French, as we ascribe a bon-mot to Joe Miller.

(1) One day, a nobleman threatened to beat him for impertinence. "If he does," said the king, "I will hang him a quarter of an hour afterwards." "May it please your Majesty," rejoined the fool, "but could you not contrive to do the hanging a quarter of an hour before?"

(2) When François was about to lead his army into Naples, a council was called to decide upon the best plan of entering Italy. Having arranged the matter, the council rose to depart. "Stay, cousin," said Triboulet to the king, "you have yet forgotten the most important point of all." "What may that be, gossip?" "How to get out," rejoined the jester. "Why, my merry-man," said François, "we shall leave with flying colours." "Very fine, your wisdom, but if your colours are flying, your troops will be flying also."

(3) When Triboulet heard that Charles-quint had asked permission to pass through France, he told the king he had noted down the emperor as the greatest fool in the world. "But what if I grant him his request?" demanded the king. "Why, then, by my bagpipes," cried the gossip, "I would scratch out his name, and write yours in its place."

COSTUME IN THE REIGN OF FRANCOIS I.

(1) **Noblemen.** The fine gentlemen dressed in doublet and trunk-hose, scarlet stockings coming half-way up the thighs, and square-toed shoes, a cap jewelled and bordered with an ostrich feather, beards and moustaches, and the hair polled.

The *doublet* was full skirted, and had large sleeves to the wrists, which were decorated with ruffles. Over the doublet, a short cloak, with loose hanging sleeves and a broad rolling collar, was often worn.

The *hose* terminated above the knee, and were both puffed and slashed.

(2) **Pages** dressed after the Italian or Spanish fashion. In the presence-chamber they stood upright and motionless, with their hands on their hips.

(3) **Boys** and Apprentice-lads wore blue gowns, tight trousers or hose of white cloth, and an extremely small cap.

(4) The **Scholars** carried an ink-horn suspended to their sash, instead of a poniard.

(5) Of **Ladies'** dresses the greatest novelty was the partlet or habit-shirt, made of some extremely delicate and valuable material, such as lawn, Venice gold, or cloth of silver.

The gowns were extremely magnificent, and open in front so as to show the kirtle or petticoat. The most fashionable fabrics were velvet lined with cloth

of gold, silks and satins with gold buttons, and cloth of damask gold. The colours were blue or lilac, according to the court party favoured by the wearer.

The sleeves were distinct from the gowns; and every imaginable extravagance was bestowed on them. The coif, afterwards known as the "Mary Stuart cap" was introduced in this reign, the material being gold; but the miniver or three-cornered cap was also much worn.

ARCHITECTURE OF THE PERIOD.

The houses were made of wood, two stories high, with low doors and extremely narrow windows.

The staircase was *outside* the house, but in châteaux or gentlemen's mansions it was not unfrequently inclosed in a little tower or bay.

The interior of the house was divided into one large room for the use of the family, and a few small chambers for the accommodation of strangers, a very necessary provision where inns were almost unknown.

The large family chamber served for living room, dining room, and bed-room. The parents, children, and servants all occupying the same apartment.

François I. introduced Italian architecture into his edifices. In these new buildings, the outside walls were crowded with ornaments, such as medallions, festoons of flowers, and groups of figures, made of carved wood or plaster.

The roofs were enormously high and prominent, and, like the walls, laden with ornaments. That of the Tuileries is in this fashion, though the palace was not begun till the reign of Charles IX. (1564.)

François I. constructed, in part at least, the palaces of Fontainebleau, St. Germain, and Chambord. He also pulled down the old palace of the Louvre, erected by Philippe-Auguste, and began to rebuild it in a much more magnificent style.*

He invited over from Italy Leonardo da Vinci [*Vin'-che*], Rosso, and Primaticcio [*Pre-mar-tick'-e-o*], the great artists and architects, to decorate his palace of Fontainebleau. The first of these was advanced in age, when he undertook the journey, and only arrived in France to die.

During his illness, the king often went to see him. And one day, as he was raising himself on his couch to thank the kind-hearted monarch, he was seized with a fainting-fit, and died in his arms.

Benvenuto Cellini, the great Italian sculptor, visited France during the same reign, and was employed on works of sculpture, and in casting figures in metal.

THE GOBELIN TAPESTRY.

In the reign of the first François, two brothers named Gilles and Jean Gobel brought to Paris the secret of dyeing a beautiful scarlet, still called the *Gobelin scarlet*. The secret they procured from a man at Leyden, whose father had discovered it by accident, but had made no use of it:

One day, he happened to place on a window-seat, lined with tin, a phial of *aqua regia*, and some extract of *cochineal*. The bottle being upset ran over the tin window-seat, and, mixing with the cochineal, produced a scarlet colour of unusual brilliancy.

The man, being a clever fellow, naturally supposed that the tin had something to do with this lustre; and after various experiments, discovered the famous scarlet dye.†

* He only completed one range of the present edifice; the rest has been added since at different periods, and no inconsiderable portion by the emperor Napoleon III.

† Gobelin scarlet is made by mixing, in cream of tartar, first some finely-powdered *cochineal*, and then some *tin* in solution. The whole is boiled together, and stirred with a wooden spoon.

The Gobelin brothers acquired considerable property by their dyeing, and their descendants continued the same trade. After a time, the manufacture of carpets and tapestry-for-hangings was added to the original business.

Louis XIV., at the suggestion of Colbert, purchased the premises, and converted the business into a royal manufacture. Skilful artists were employed to invent designs, and the celebrated Lebrun was appointed director.

The establishment was henceforth called the *Royal hotel of the Gobelins*, and the manufacture produced there the *Tapestry of the Gobelins*. Our expression "Gobelin Tapestry" is apt to convey a somewhat erroneous idea.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF FRANÇOIS I.

Though François issued several severe ordinances against printing, invented in the preceding period, yet was he styled *the Father and Restorer of letters*. Up to his time, the legal proceedings in France, had been carried on in barbarous Latin. François ordered that, in future, the vernacular tongue should be employed in the law-courts, an arrangement already introduced in most of the countries of Europe.

Of the number of Frenchmen whose labours he encouraged, we may single out the learned Budé, called by Erasmus the *Prodigy of France*. He was learned in all the sciences: theology, jurisprudence, mathematics, and philology; but is chiefly celebrated for his knowledge of Greek, the study of which he introduced into France.

Besides Budé, we have the three brothers Du Bellay, statesmen and historians; Henri Etienne the printer; Clement Marot [*Mar-roé*] the poet; Rabelais [*Rabby-lay*] the wit; Marguerite of Navarre; Dumoulin and Cujas the great juriconsults; Cousin [*Coo-sar'n*] the painter, called the *Michael Angelo of France*; Philibert Delorme, Pierre Lescot [*Pe-air Las-ko*], and Jean Goujon, the architects; with many others less conspicuous.

Clément Marot (1484—1544), *valet de chambre* to François I., was a poet of very high order; and, for many years, his mythological allegories were the most popular compositions of the day. His *Temple of Cupid* and *Eclogue of Pan and Robin*, are worthy the one of Chaucer and the other of Spencer. His *Hero and Leander* is a model of ease and sweetness; and his tale of the *Lion and Rat* may be considered the precursor of French fable.

Marot [*Mar-roé*] was a Protestant, and greatly offended the pundits of the Sorbonne by translating into French the "Psalms of David." So bitter was their persecution, that the "valet poet" was obliged to quit Paris. He removed to Genève, where he died in extreme poverty. His Psalms were sung with wonderful enthusiasm in all the reformed churches of France.

For wit, archness, satire, liveliness of fancy, delicacy of sentiment, and simplicity of description, Clément Marot may be called the *Chaucer of France*.

Poets, at this period, seem to have ranked with court fools. Marot, who was a wit, was walking one day with a fop, who superciliously said to him, "Marot, I hate to have a fool for my companion." "It is strange how our tastes jump together!" rejoined the poet archly.

At another time, he was told that the bishop had threatened to chastise him for satirising the clergy. "Oh," said Marot, "I can easily go where he will never find me." "Where is that?" asked his companion. "Into his worship's library," said the wit.

François Rabelais (1483—1553) was first a monk; then a leech; then prebend of St. Maur; and lastly curé of Meudon, in which capacity he died.

His great work is the *History of Gargantua and Pantagruel*, a satirical romance, full of wit, folly, and extravagance; but abounding in original ideas, learning, and good sense. It contains lessons of profound wisdom, the most piquant allusions, and the severest satire; but not a little of it is both coarse and obscene. The monks and clergy are castigated without mercy.

Sterne's *Tristram Shandy* is founded on this romance; and the two authors had several points of character in common.

It is generally thought that *Gargantua* is meant for François I.; *Pantagruel* for his son and successor, Henri II.; *Grand Gousier* for Louis XII.; *Gargamelle* for Anne of Brittany; *Grande Jument* for Diane de Poitiers; and *Panurge* for the cardinal of Lorraine, more likely Calvin. Under the mask of these adventures, Rabelais contrived to speak his mind concerning kings, priests, and scholars. Just as Swift did in his *Gulliver's Travels*.

Gargantua was a giant, whose son Pantagruel was as big and wonderful as himself. Beneath his tongue an army took shelter from the rain, and in his mouth and throat were populous cities.

HENRI II. LE BELLIQUEUX.

REIGNED 12 YEARS. FROM 1547 TO 1559. *Contemporary with Edward VI. and Mary.*

Kingdom. Calais recovered from the English.

Married Catherine de' Medici, daughter of Lorenzo de' Medici, duke of Urbino.

Issue. François, his successor; Charles, duc d'Orléans, afterwards Charles IX.; Henri, duc d'Anjou, afterwards Henri III.; François, duc d'Alençon; Elisabeth, who married Felipe II. of Spain; Claude, who married the duc de Lorraine; and Marguerite, who married Henri Bourbon, king of Navarre.

Chief Residence. The Louvre.

History of the Reign. "Vie de Henri II.," by Varillas.

Henri II. was 29 years old when he succeeded to the crown. He was undoubtedly brave; but, like most of the Valois race, cunning and deceitful.

His great failing was indecision; in consequence of which, he was easily swayed by the more resolute minds of his courtiers and favourites.

He was tall, active, and possessed of great muscular strength; could outrun the swiftest in the chase; overthrow the strongest in the tourney; and was an admirable horseman. Towards the middle of life he inclined to *embonpoint*, but combated the tendency by regular diet and exercise.

His complexion was dark, his hair black, his beard black and full. His neck short, his shoulders broad, his general appearance manly and dignified.

He usually wore a blue satin doublet slashed with white, and laden with ornaments. The colours were selected out of compliment to Diane de Poitiers. His hat was decorated with a feather, and studded with diamonds; and round his neck he wore a double gold chain.

He had the name of king it is true, but was wholly ruled by his favourite lady, Madame de Poitiers, who but too often sacrificed the national good to her own private advantage.

The most influential family at the time was that of the Lorraine: François duc de Guise, the eldest of the family, was commander-in-chief of the army; his brother the cardinal, comptroller-general of finance; a third brother was lord high admiral; and two others were generals. Mary Stuart, the queen-dauphin, was a niece of the same family; one of the nephews was betrothed to the king's daughter Claude; and a sister of the same house was queen of Scotland.

Next to the Lorraine family in influence was Anne-de-Montmorency, constable of France, a bluff rude soldier, who hated the duc de Guise,

and intrigued with Diane, to thwart his ambition and undermine his influence.

The history of this reign may be likened to a game of chess, in which the duc de Guise and comte de Montmorency were the principal players.

The duke was great, powerful, bold, and fortunate. The army adored him; the people were proud of him; the king feared him; and Diane of Poitiers was jealous of him.

The count was the highest officer in the state; intriguing and obstinate. Madame de Poitiers sided with him, and carried over the king; but the people disliked him, and the king was afraid to uphold him, because he was unfortunate.

War with Germany (1551—1554). Scarcely had the second Henri ascended the throne, when he prepared to break with his father's old enemy, Charles-quint of Germany. Charles had defeated the Protestant league near the Elbe [*Ell-be*], and the vanquished party applied to France for assistance.

Henri gladly seized this opportunity of opposing the emperor, and publicly declared himself the *Defender of German Independence*; but scarcely had he done so, when Maurice of Saxony headed the league; secured religious liberty for Germany; and the aid of Henri was not required.

Henri received, for his promised assistance, the three episcopal towns of Metz [*Mess*], Toul, and Verdun [*Vair-darn'g*]; and, although he took no part in the victory, he kept the three bishoprics.

Charles swore to wrest them from him, and besieged Metz [*Mess*] with 100,000 men; but the duc de Guise so nobly defended it, that the emperor was obliged to raise the siege; and retired with the loss of 40,000 men.

Next year Charles-quint, afflicted with a painful disease, seeing all his plans subverted, his treasure exhausted, and his dominions ravaged by war, abdicated, and retired to a convent, where he lingered for ten years, regretting the power he had given out of his hands.

Battle of St. Quentin (1557). When Charles-quint abdicated, his enormous dominions were divided into two parts: The kingdom of Spain was delivered over to his son Philipp, and the empire of Germany to his brother Ferdinand.

The marriage of Philipp with queen Mary of England greatly alarmed the French nation; and Henri II. immediately despatched the duke of Guise into Italy to co-operate with the pope against Spain.

Philipp, on the other hand, invaded Picardy, and laid siege to St. Quentin [*San Karn-tar'n*]. The French were thoroughly beaten, and 10,000 men left dead on the field. Such a defeat had not been sustained by them since the battle of Azincourt.

The whole nation was panic-struck ; and if Philipp had marched at once to Paris, he might have made himself master of the capital ; but he delayed for 17 days, and the French had time to rally.

The duc de Guise, recalled from Italy, was put at the head of the French forces, and marched at once to *Calais*, which he took by surprise. The town had been held by England for 210 years, but has ever since been united to the crown of France (1558).

France, in the course of the same year, lost the battle of *Gravelinds* ; and this defeat was followed by a treaty called the "Disastrous Peace" (*la Paix Malheureuse*), signed at Cateau-Cambresis, [*Kat-to Karn-breezy*], in the north of France.

By this treaty, Henri renounced all claim to Genöa, Naples, Mil'an, and Corsica ; and thus terminated the Italian war, which had lasted for 65 years (1483—1559).

Two marriages helped to cement the peace : that of Elisabeth of France to Philipp II. of Spain, now a widower ; and that of Marguerite of Valois to Philibert duke of Savoy. The former lady was the daughter, and the latter the sister of Henri II., the reigning king.

On this occasion, the French monarch gave a grand tournament in honour of the espousals, and, being passionately fond of the amusement, declared his intention to take part therein in person. Having overthrown every adversary in the lists, he waited to be challenged ; and the comte de Montgomery threw down his gauntlet. The new combatant wounded the king in the eye ; and the wound proved fatal ; and thus died the second Henri, in the 40th year of his age and 13th of his reign.

Gabriel de Montgomery (1533—1574), captain of the Scotch guards, was the son of James de Lorge, a Scotch gentleman who purchased, in Normandy, the seignory of Montgomery, which conferred upon him the title of count.

After his misadventure, he fled to England, where he embraced the reformed religion ; and when the Religious Wars broke out, was one of the Protestant leaders.

He escaped the Bartholomew slaughter by flight ; but was ultimately taken prisoner at Domfront, and beheaded for having caused the death of the king.

NOTABILIA IN THE REIGN OF HENRI II.

(1) The "parlement of Paris," consisting of 160 councillors or magistrates, was in this reign assembled, as a fourth estate, in the "Assembly of Notables and Deputies."

(2) The French standing-army consisted of 15,000 French infantry, 9000 Germans, 7000 Swiss, 1500 heavy horse, 400 archers, 200 gentlemen, 1200 heavy soldiers armed with arquebus, and 2000 light horse. Total 36,300 men.

(3) In order to raise money for the campaigns, new offices were created and sold, royal domains alienated, and exemption from taxes granted by purchase to several cities.

EFFECTS OF THE ITALIAN WARS.

The Italian wars brought no material advantage to France, as all that was won by conquest was lost by defeat ; and, after a most prodigal waste of life

and treasure, the long contest of 65 years was terminated by the renouncement of all claim to any portion of Italy.

Indirectly, however, like the crusades, they were highly beneficial. It was in Italy that the French became acquainted with the master-works of Raphaël and Angélo. It was here they were made familiar with the literary treasures of Dante [*Darn'-ty*], Petrarch, Boccacio [*Boc-carl'-che-o*], and Ariosto. And here they were taught the refinements and works of art of the foremost people of the world.

Charles VIII., at the very commencement of the war, drew Lascaris, from Florence, and the learned Greek was subsequently employed to form the royal library of Fontainebleau, and introduce professors of the Greek language into the University of Paris.

François I., with far greater zeal, invited to his capital Leonardo-da-Vinci [*Vin'-che*], Andrea-del-Sarto, and Rosso, the famous painters; Primaticcio [*Pre-mar-tich'-e-o*] the architect; and that prince of sculptors Benvenuto-Cellini.

Soon a mighty change came over the literature and architecture of the times. This change was so marked and palpable, that the French call the period the *Renaissance* or Revival.

The Italian sonnet, Italian metre, translations and adaptations from the Italian poets, crowd upon us. The French language acquired a host of new words and expressions, which added much to its strength and beauty; and no one can read the poets before the Renaissance, and those which constitute it, without feeling that the Italian mania had revolutionized the national taste.

So also in architecture: The ponderous high roof, the crowd of ornamentation, the fanciful chimneys, the statues introduced into walls, parapets, and vestibules, the shape and style of doors and windows, all so different to anything previously known in France, plainly speak of Italy as the place whence they were borrowed.

Without doubt, the recent invention of printing, the discovery of the New World, and the Religious Reformation, stirred up the energies and aroused the enthusiasm of the people; but the Italian taste gave this energy a bias, and stamped it with its own image and superscription.

ROYAL AMUSEMENTS.

(1) The favourite amusement of Henri II. was *Tilting*, in which he was very skilful.

A large space was appropriated for the purpose in the Rue St. Antoine, and scaffoldings were erected round it for the accommodation of the public.

It was a difficult game, which was played thus: A ring was suspended on a pole; the tilter had to ride full gallop towards the pole, and carry away the ring, in passing, on the point of his lance.

The lance was not to touch his body, but was to be held horizontally, the elbow elevated above the head.

Henri managed his lance with admirable grace and dexterity, and there was no one in the kingdom who could compete with him in this exciting game.

Whoever won the prize, went and offered it to any lady he chose among the spectators. Of course, the king selected his royal favourite, Diane of Poitiers.

(2) The *Tourney* was another favourite amusement. It was not unusual for the winner of the tilt to combat afterwards in the tourney; and the winner of a tourney had to accept any combatant who chose to challenge him. It was in one of these challenges that the king received his death-wound.

(3) Three times a week at least, the king and all the lords and ladies of the court spent the evening in the queen's apartment, where they talked over the events of the day, and terminated the *soirée* either with a dance or private theatricals.

COSTUME OF THE RENAISSANCE PERIOD.

This was the era of profuse ornament in everything. Statues, pictures, gilding, coloured medallions, and heraldic devices, were crowded into every possible space.

Dress partook of the same gaudy character. The *Men* wore red, green, blue, and white satin, with a profusion of gold braid, and slashes of some second colour. The coat sleeves were short, with large cuffs, showing the shirt-sleeves from the middle of the arm to the wrist. All the button-holes were ornamented; and ornamental buttons were tacked in rows over the cuffs, pockets, waist, and indeed wherever they could be inserted.

Trunk-hose were still common. The shoe was like what is now called an "Albert Slipper," only the heel was extremely high. The hat was decorated with a plume. And the neck with a fine lawn neck-cloth tied with a huge bow, with long lace ends.

¶ Horses were caparisoned in a similar gorgeous manner with velvet and gold. The housings covered the horse all over, reaching to the very ground, so that it is difficult to conceive how the creature could move without stamping on his trappings.

PROTESTANTISM IN FRANCE.

Henri II. did all he could to stop the spread of Protestantism in France, but wholly without effect. It no longer skulked in corners with shut doors; but showed itself openly, and made its voice to be heard on high. Instead of seeking tolerance, as heretofore, it had become aggressive, and loudly demanded the abolition of altars and crucifixes, ecclesiastical pictures and vestments.

In the short space of three years, reformed churches had sprung up in Paris, Blois [*Blwor*], Tours, Poitiers, Marseilles, and Rouen [*Roo-on'g.*] Immense crowds attended to hear the preachers, and sing the psalms of Clement Marot [*Mar-roé*]. Probably, a fifth of the whole population of France favoured the new views, and those not the poor and ignorant, but the upper classes, the nobles, the rich merchants, and even the sedate lawyers.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF HENRI II.

Scaliger (1484—1551) was a descendant of the ancient house of Scala. As a scholar he deserves the highest rank: witness his comments on *Theophrastus*, *Aristotle*, and *Hippocrätës*; and still more his very valuable work *De causis Lingue Latine*.

J. J. Scaliger, son of the preceding, was superior even to his father as a philologist, and is still better known as a chronologist and historian. He may be called *the father of chronology*; and his great work *De emendatione Temporum* shows wonderful research and scholarship.

Robert Etienne (1503—1559), better known in England as Robert Stephen, was the oldest of three brothers, all of whom were eminent scholars, and sons of Henri Etienne the eminent printer.

Robert was not only one of the most skilful printers that ever lived, he was no less a most eminent scholar, learned in the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages; and thoroughly acquainted with general literature. His *Thesaurus of the Latin Language* shows great research, and is very valuable.

Having given offence to the doctors of the Sorbonne by the Calvinistic tendency of some notes appended to an edition of the Bible which he printed, he experienced great annoyance, and removed to Genève. He is the author of the present division of the New Testament into verses, a labour he performed in a journey on horseback from Paris to Lyons.

Henri Etienne, his son, was author of what we call *Stephen's Greek Thesaurus*. He ruined himself by printing this great work, and died in poverty in the hospital of Lyons, 1598.

Diane de Poitiers (1499—1566) was married at the age of 13 to Louis de Brézé, grand senechal of Normandy. She lost her husband when she was about 30; became the mistress of Henri II., then only dauphin; and headed a court party in opposition to the duchesse d'Etampes [*Da-tarnp*].

At the death of François I., the duchess was banished, and Diane reigned supreme. Even the haughty Catherine de Medicis, the lawful wife of Henri, was obliged to succumb to the court beauty; and proved a mere cipher in her presence.

Diane was indeed beautiful. Her colours were blue and white; and she usually dressed in white muslin, with blue trimmings. She was created by Henri duchess of Valentinois; and her court was attended by all the rank and beauty of France. At the death of the king she retired from the court, and lived the rest of her life in great seclusion.

FRANCOIS II.

REIGNED 1 YEAR. FROM 1559 TO 1560. *Contemporary with Queen Elizabeth.*

Married Mary Stuart, afterwards Queen of Scotland. No issue.

When François II. was proclaimed king, although he was 16 years old, and therefore above the legal age, it was deemed necessary, on account of his weak health and inexperience, to make over the conduct of affairs to some powerful minister, who would act in his name.

The question was, who should this be? There were four claimants to the office: Catherine de Medicis, the queen dowager; the duc de Guise, the queen's uncle; the comte de Montmorency, lord high constable; and Antoine de Bourbon, king of Navarre, next heir to the French throne after the royal princes.

Catherine felt that now was the turning point of her fortune. Hitherto she had been neglected and oppressed, but henceforth was to open a prospect affording full scope to her vast ambition. She played her cards well. She knew she could not be *regent* to a king already of age, so she resolved to reign through some minister who would play into her hands.

The constable was out of the question, as he had already pandered to Madame de Poitiers. Antoine de Bourbon was dangerous, being so near the throne himself. Her choice, therefore, was fixed upon the duc de Guise.

Diane was immediately banished from the court; and the comte de Montmorency, though he could not be deprived of his constable's bâton, was stripped of his other high offices, and commanded to live in retirement. Even his nephew, Monsieur de Coligny [*Co-leen'-ye*]

was disgraced; and all his adherents and friends deprived of their places about the court and king's person.

Catherine and the duke were absolute; yet was there no real love between them. They combined for the present to sweep away their mutual enemies; but resolved, in their hearts, to strike for undivided power, as soon as an opportunity presented itself.

Martyrdom of Dubourg (1559). Catherine de Médicis, the duc de Guise, and the cardinal his brother, were all rigid Catholics, and looked upon the Huguenots as rebels and the offscouring of the earth.

Now it so happened, at this very time, that an eminent person named Dubourg, a member of the Paris *parlement*, was confined in the Bastille for entertaining heretical opinions.

He had never been brought to trial, because Henri II. was unwilling to encounter the opprobrium of such a measure; but now the cardinal persuaded his brother to make him a public example. Accordingly, he was impeached in a formal manner, and condemned to be burnt alive.

His trial excited the greatest interest throughout all Europe. The whole Protestant party was put in motion; and several German princes interceded to arrest the sentence of execution, but in vain. Dubourg was taken from the Bastille to the *Place de Grève*; hung in chains to a gibbet; and burnt to death.

His death gave the cardinal fresh courage. He grew bolder and bolder. And devised a court for the trial and punishment of heretics, called the "fiery chamber" (*la chambre ardente*), because the stake was its general award.

The **Amboise Plot (1560).** The death of Dubourg gave great offence to the Huguenots, who resolved to seize the young king, and compel him to dismiss from his council the duc de Guise and his brother.

The duke being informed of their intention, sent the king for security to the strongly-fortified castle of Amboise, [*Arn-bwoiz*] on the Loire; but the conspirators, nothing daunted, persevered in their design.

If they had succeeded, they would probably have transferred the crown to the prince de Condé, the head of the Protestant cause. Their every movement, however, was narrowly watched, and all their plans revealed to the duke; so that, when the attempt was made to carry off the king, the conspirators were entrapped by ambuscades planted to intercept them.

Many were cut down with the sword; many who had barricaded themselves in a house were burnt to death; and the rest were executed without mercy. The poorer sort being thrown into the Loire, or

gibbeted on the castle walls; the better sort being beheaded, and their execution made a public spectacle.

No fewer than 27 barons, 11 counts, and 7 marquises, were put to death in one day; and the cardinal insisted that the young king and queen should preside over the ceremony.

The king, who was very tender-hearted and in extremely delicate health, earnestly prayed to be spared this cruel sight, but the churchman was inexorable. He went; he sickened; was confined to his bed, and died. Eight months afterwards, his young widow was sent to Scotland, and never again returned to the land of her affection.

The word Huguenot was first applied to the Protestant party in this plot, which may perhaps help to fix the derivation of the word from the German *eid-genossen* (confederates).

The French tricolour was devised in this reign by Mary Stuart, as a livery for the Swiss guards. The *white* represented the royal house of France; the *blue*, Scotland, in compliment to the young queen's native land; and the *red*, Switzerland, in compliment to the guards themselves.

THE RELIGIOUS WARS (1562—1598).

CHARLES IX.

REIGNED 14 YEARS. FROM 1560 TO 1574. *Contemporary with Elizabeth.*

Married Elizabeth, daughter of Maximilian II. of Austria. No Issue.

Residences. Vincennes, the Louvre, &c. He sold the Palais des Tournelles, which had been the royal residence of all the successors of Charles V.

History of the Reign. "Vie de Charles IX.," by Varillas; "Le Siècle de Charles IX.," by Voltaire.

Contemporary Events. Catherine de Médicis employed Philebert-Delorme to build the Palace of the Tuileries. The Council of Trent closed its sittings. The first turkey ever seen in France, was brought from Candia by the Jesuits, and served up at the wedding-table of the king. In 1564, the beginning of the year was changed from Easter to January.

N.B. Marie Touchet was the courtesan of Charles IX. and mother of Charles d'Angoulême, who played a very conspicuous part in the reign of Henri IV. After the death of Charles IX. Marie Touchet married François de Balzac d'Entraigues, governor of Orléans, by whom she had two daughters, the younger of whom was the marchioness of Verneuil, mistress of Henri IV. Henri of Navarre, being introduced by the king to Marie Touchet, was asked to make an anagram on her name, and wrote the following *Je charme tout* (I charm all).

Charles IX., brother of François II., was only ten years old when he succeeded to the crown. His mother Catherine de Medici [*Med-e-che*], called Catherine de Médicis [*Med'-e-ce*] by the French, was appointed Regent.

Although the reign is but a short one, it will be advisable to divide it into two parts, as some of the principal actors at the beginning of it were the fathers of those who figured most prominently at the close: Thus, in the former half, we shall have François de Guise, Louis prince de Condé, and Antoine of Navarre, with Anne de Montmorency, and St. André; whereas, the chief actors in the latter part, were Henri de Guise, Henri prince de Condé, and Henri of Navarre, with the admiral de Coligny [*Co-leen-ye*].

PART I.—THE FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD RELIGIOUS WARS.

The most powerful family of France was still the House of Lorraine; and the most influential member of that house François duc de Guise, the greatest general of the age, chief minister and adviser of the late king.

A haughty ambitious nobleman, like duke François, would not be likely to succumb to a woman, even although that woman were a regent. Catherine, the queen-mother, felt this; hated the duke because he stood in the path of her ambition; and, in order to contravene him, coquetted with the Protestant party, hoping by this means to strengthen her hands, and throw the odium of persecution upon her rivals.

The duke instantly perceived the move, and allied himself at once to the marshal St. André and comte de Montmorency, two of the most powerful nobles of the realm. The former a distinguished general, and the latter Constable of France.

Such a tower of strength as this, was wholly irresistible. The queen-mother was rendered thereby a mere cipher. And the three magnates were denominated the French **Triumvirate**.

Their first care was to outwit the queen. She had finessed with the Protestants, to induce them to believe that their wrongs proceeded from the Lorraines; but now the duke made advances to them, and outbid the queen.

Catherine had merely shewed them certain courtesies; but the duke went a step further, and promised them an amnesty for the past, provided they returned to the bosom of the church.

For men like the duke and the cardinal, this was a great concession; but it shows how utterly they misunderstood the protestant spirit, if they for one moment imagined that such a proposal would be accepted. Of course, it was rejected; and the duke was amazed that "such an ignorant rabble" should dare to draw back, when a Lorraine condescended to make advances to them.

The Poissy Colloquy (1561). What was now to be done? The cardinal suggested, that the protestants should be invited to listen to reason; they could not refuse that; and he felt persuaded in his own mind, that the whole weight of reason was on his own side.

He proposed, that a formal challenge should be sent to Calvin and his followers to meet their antagonists in fair discussion, and that those who had the worst of the argument should go over to the other side.

No doubt, the cardinal believed his cause to be invincible; how indeed should it be otherwise, with an infallible pope to direct it? On the other hand, he looked upon the Huguenots as a parcel of

ignorant fanatics, who would be easily cowed by the great church dignitaries, and silenced by their profound erudition.

This absurd suggestion was actually accepted by the Triumvirate, and acted on. The challenge was duly sent; and Poissy was the place appointed for the colloquy.

Poissy will not be found on any ordinary map. It is a small town three miles to the north-west of St. Germain, in the department of the Seine-et-Oise.

A host of learned doctors, headed by the Cardinal de Lorraine, three other cardinals and forty bishops, went in full canonicals to maintain the cause of Catholicity. They were confronted by only twelve simple protestant ministers, the chief of whom was Théodore de Bèze, better known as Theodore Beza.

This foolish battle of words ended, as all such contests usually do. Neither party convinced the other, but both retired disgusted with the obstinacy of their opponents, and more self-opinionated than before.

Edict of January (1562). The Triumvirate having made two unsuccessful advances to the Protestants, resolved to abandon any further attempt at reconciliation.

It was now the Queen-regent's turn to play out her game. She accordingly exercised her prerogative to convene a committee of delegates from the several *parlements* of France, and laid before them the causes of complaint made by the Huguenots against the government. Not that she wished to favour the reformers, but that she hoped the Assembly would propose something to annoy, if not to break up the Triumvirate.

The delegates met at Paris, and published the famous *Edict of January*, which granted to the Huguenots full liberty of conscience, provided they held their meetings beyond the barriers.

The high church party was indignant. A popular cry of "The church is in danger" was spread from city to city; and the duke François hastened from Joinville, [*Zjwoin-veel*] where he then was, to consult with his colleagues on the line of conduct to be pursued.

On his way to Paris, he happened to pass through the town of Vassy on a Sunday, while some Huguenots were assembled in a barn for public worship.

His followers began jeering and insulting the congregation; a tumult ensued; and the duke, in the midst of the fray, was wounded in the cheek by a stone. The soldiers now rushed on their unarmed opponents with ungovernable rage, and cut down more than 60 of them with the sword.

The report of this outrage spread like wildfire. The Huguenots had long been smarting under their grievances, and this was a fair pretext for rebellion. Both parties felt that a rupture was at hand, and girded themselves for battle.

The contest, thus provoked, lasted for 36 years, and is known in history as the *Religious Wars* of France; but "civil wars" would be more appropriate, as religion had no part nor lot in the matter.

FIRST RELIGIOUS WAR OF FRANCE (1562—1563).

The Triumvirs were the leaders of the Catholic faction; and, in order to strengthen their party, craved the assistance of Don Felipe of Spain, promising to cede to him Turin, as the price of his services.

The Protestant leaders were Louis prince de Condé, and the sire de Coligny [*Co-leen-ye*], admiral of France. They applied to queen Elizabeth for aid, and promised to give her the town of Havre [*Harv'r*], if she acceded to their request.

The Huguenot army was conspicuous for its severe discipline and obstinacy of purpose. Every man in it looked upon himself as a martyr, and was equally prepared to conquer or die. No games of chance were tolerated in their camp; no profane oath was ever heard in their ranks; no licentious habit was in anywise permitted.

A Calvinistic minister was attached to each company. As the troops moved, they sang psalms; and before they arrayed themselves for battle, they assembled for public worship.

Woe to the city that fell under their wrath! Woe to the army defeated by their prowess! They slew from principle; and to have spared, would have been, in their opinion, to incur the guilt and judgment of Saul, for sparing Agag the Amalekite.

¶ The Triumvirate army was the reverse of all this: licentious, roistering, and free; swearing, tippling, gambling, and debauching; partly from a spirit of contrariety, and partly from depravity.

Equally enthusiastic and savage, but from a different motive. They hated the Huguenots, as the Pharisees hated the Samaritans. They despised them as renegades; and were mad against them, as Paul against the Nazarenes.

The two armies were prototypes of the Puritans and Royalists, in the reign of Charles I. Under the mask of religion, they tore asunder every family and social tie, devastated the nation, and exposed its inhabitants to fire and sword.

¶ The principal events of the First Religious War were: The siege of Rouen [*Roo-on'g*], the battle of Dreux [*Drew*], and the siege of Orleans.

At the **Siege of Rouen** (1562), Antoine de Bourbon, king of Navarre and brother of prince Condé, was slain.

In the **Battle of Dreux** (1562), marshal St. André, one of the Triumvirs, was slain; but the Catholics claimed the victory, as prince Condé, chief of the protestant army, was taken prisoner.

At the **Siege of Orleans** (1563), François duc de Guise was slain, the great antagonist of the queen-mother. Only one of the Triumvirate, Anne de Montmorency, remained, and he retired from public life.

Catherine, being now without a rival, hastened to make peace with the Huguenots, and it was four years before hostilities were again resumed.

¶ The terms of the truce were these: The Protestants were to enjoy full liberty of conscience, and a town in every bailiwick was to be assigned to them for the convenience of public worship after their own form.

The remains of the protestant army consented to march under Montmorency the Constable, to drive the English out of Havre [*Harv'r*]; and thus, the very persons who gave the city to Elizabeth, for sympathising in their cause, now drove away her garrison, and restored the city to the crown of France.

SECOND RELIGIOUS WAR OF FRANCE (1567, 1568).

The **Battle of St. Denis** [*Dnee*] (1567), where Anne de Montmorency lost his life, is the only event of note in the Second Religious War.

The Huguenots, defeated in this battle, retired to Rochelle, the great rendezvous of the party; and thither the queen of Navarre and all the leaders of the faction repaired, to deliberate on the next move.

The death of the aged constable was no matter of grief to the royal mother, as it relieved her of her last great rival: Marshal St. André had fallen in the battle of Dreux [*Drew*], the duc de Guise at the siege of Orléans, and now Montmorency was dead also.

Catherine hoped in future to rule supreme and alone. Accordingly, she persuaded the young king not to appoint another Lord Constable, but to give the command of the army to his brother Henri duc d'Anjou, who was at the time only 14 years of age.

Anne de Montmorency (1493—1567) was distinguished in the reign of François I. and the three following reigns. After being marshal, grand-master, and administrator of affairs, he was created Constable of France, an office which he held for 40 years.

He was a man of lofty stature, cold, stiff, and austere. Keen in his look, brief in speech, eternally grumbling, never seen in good humour, and thinking it a degradation to indulge in a smile. With talents not above mediocrity, he inspired the first François with confidence by his military inflexibility and dictatorial gravity. Even to the king he was brusque; to others he was actually bearish.

He was surnamed the *Fabius* of France, from the way he conducted the expedition against Charles V. of Germany: annoying him in every way, alluring him from place to place, and never coming to an open combat. He was 74 years old at death, and in possession of all his faculties.

THIRD RELIGIOUS WAR OF FRANCE (1569—1570).

A hollow peace was patched up after the battle of St. Denis [*San-Dneé*], but it lasted only a few months, and war broke out again more fiercely than ever.

Both parties were mad with hatred, and both gave loose to the most unbridled cruelty.

The Huguenots went about destroying and desecrating churches, profaning altars, defacing sacred pictures, and committing numberless other atrocities. One of their leaders, named Briquemont [*Breek-môn*], more savage than the rest, actually wore round his neck a string of priests' ears by way of necklace.

The Catholics, on the other hand, returned evil for evil with ample interest; and we dare not describe the frightful acts of vengeance committed by their favourite leader, Louis de Bourbon, duc de Montpensier [*Môn-parn'-se-a.*]

Battle of Jarnac (1569). After some time spent in this savage sport, the two factions met in force on the banks of the Charente, near Jarnac, where a most bloody battle was fought. The Catholics were the victors, and the prince de Condé, the great Huguenot leader, was slain.

He was wounded in the arm the night before the battle. On the morning of the fight, as he was marshalling his forces, his leg was broken by a kick from a vicious horse. Still fought he, like a lion, game to the last, till he was shot from behind by a pistol; and scarcely 39 years of age, he fell dead, dying a hero's death.

At the prince's death, Henri de Bourbon (afterwards Henri IV.) was declared leader of the Huguenots; but, on account of his youth, the command of the army was committed to the venerable Coligny [*Co-leen-ye*].

The first engagement of the new leader was at **Moncontour**, where he was utterly defeated by the king's brother, the duc d'Anjou. After which, another peace was conceded. The Huguenots were granted a general amnesty, and the free exercise of their religion; and, by way of surety, four large cities were placed in their hands.

The four cities were Rochelle, Montaubon, Cognac, and La-Charité.

PART II.—THE GREAT SLAUGHTER OF THE PROTESTANTS.

The Huguenot leaders entrapped (1571, 1572). Almost immediately after peace was concluded for the third time, Charles IX. married Elisabeth of Austria; and from that moment, a deep-laid plot was devised for lulling the suspicion of the Protestants, and cutting them off by treachery.

In order to carry out the plot the more effectively, Catherine proposed a marriage between her daughter Marguerite and Henri of Navarre, the acknowledged chief of the Protestant faction.

All the principal Huguenots were invited to the nuptials: Jeanne D'Albret [*Dal-bray*], the dowager queen of Navarre and mother of the bridegroom; Henri de Condé, son of the famous prince de Condé assassinated at the battle of Jarnac; the sire de Coligny, lord High Admiral of France; and many others.

The great Catholic leaders were also present: Henri de Guise; his brother the duc de Mayenne [*My-yenn*]; the old cardinal de Lorraine, his uncle; and, of course, the two princes of the blood, Henri duc d'Anjou, and François duc d'Alençon, the king's brothers.

Henri de Guise, son of duke François, was the most popular young nobleman of the time. He was only 21 years old, but was the favourite leader of the Catholic faction.

During the lifetime of the great duke he was styled the prince de Joinville [*Zjwain-reel*], and made his military *début* at the siege of Orléans under his father, who died in his arms, ascribing his death to the admiral de Coligny [*Co-leen-ye*].*

The fiery young duke took a solemn oath, on the battle-field, to avenge his father's "murder" upon the admiral and all his family; and to persecute with relentless zeal the whole Huguenot party.

Such were the discordant elements brought together on this occasion. Persons who hated each other with mortal hatred, but, for the nonce, put on the semblance of courtly politeness and social friendship.

¶ Scarcely had Jeanne d'Albret [*Dal-bray*] reached the Louvre, when she was suddenly taken ill, and died. It was generally believed, that she had been poisoned by a pair of gloves, presented to her by queen Catherine. Her death, however, did not interrupt the wedding, which was duly solemnized on the 18th November, 1572.

The bridegroom, now king of Navarre since his mother's death, was just 19 years of age. His eyes were sharp and penetrating, his hair black and cropped, his eye-brows thick, his nose aquiline, and his beard beginning to sprout.

The bride was barely 20; the most beautiful and best educated woman of Europe. Her hair was black, complexion brilliant, eyes shaded with long dark lashes, mouth small and rosy, neck and figure extremely graceful, and feet tiny as a child's. She could read Greek with ease, and converse fluently in Latin, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese.

There was much apparent congruity in this match: both bride and bridegroom were of royal birth, about the same age, possessed of noble forms and mental qualities of a very superior order; yet was the alliance productive of happiness to neither.

* François duc de Guise was killed by Poltrot de Méré, but affirmed, in his dying moments, that Coligny counselled the deed.

Both felt themselves sacrificed to state policy, and neither loved the other. In fact, Marguerite was in love with Henri of Guise, a married man; and the bridegroom with Madame de Sauve, a married woman in the suite of the queen-mother.

¶ The wedding was followed by several fête days, during which the Catholics showed the Huguenots most marked attention; but, as the ceremonies commenced with the death of Jeanne d'Albret [*Dal-bray*], the bridegroom's mother, it was brought to a close by an attempt to assassinate the sire de Coligny [*Co-leen-ye*]:

As the old admiral was returning from the Louvre one night to his hotel, he was shot at by a man, from behind a grated window. The assassin was a servant of duke Henri's, and had been appointed by his master to way-lay the aged Huguenot. He was not killed, though he was severely wounded. The shot had fractured his arm, and blown off two of his fingers.

Catherine de Médicis [*Med'-e-ce*] and the king expressed great concern at this outrage, and even went in person to visit the wounded admiral at his hotel. It is thought, however, that the whole proceeding was only a part of the plot shortly about to be carried into execution.

Orders were immediately issued to close the city gates, and allow no one, without a pass, to leave the city. This was done, ostensibly, to prevent the escape of the assassin, but, in reality, to prevent the exit of the Huguenots.

In the mean time, a most minute account was brought to the king of the name and abode of every Protestant in Paris. Everything looked suspicious, and hundreds were admitted to the secret, but the Huguenots were without suspicion. For two more days, all remained quiet; but it was the lull before the storm.

Jeanne d'Albret (1530—1572), mother of Henri IV., was the daughter and successor of Henri d'Albret king of Navarre and Béarn. She married Antoine de Bourbon duc de Vendôme, and remained queen for ten years after her husband's death. Jeanne introduced into her kingdom the reformed religion, and was one of the chief supporters of the Huguenot party.

Massacre of St. Bartholomew (24th August 1572). At midnight, on the 24th of August, a bell in the tower of the royal palace gave the signal for a general massacre of all the Protestants in the city. The Swiss guard, the city militia, and all others officially employed in this nefarious slaughter, were distinguished by a scarf on their left arm, and a white cross on their hat.

At the first stroke of the bell, Henri de Guise, with a band of assassins, rushed to the hotel of Coligny [*Co-leen-ye*]. He was not in bed, but was engaged in prayer. "Are you Coligny?" asked one of the duke's German servants. "Yes," replied the admiral, "but honour these grey hairs, young man." The ruffian made no reply,

but plunged his sword into the old man's body; while the other assassins coming up dispatched him, and threw his carcase into the streets.

The head of the venerable reformer was lopped off, and carried as a trophy to the queen-mother, who caused it to be embalmed, and sent as a present to the sovereign pontiff. The trunk, after being dragged through the streets by the frantic mob, was suspended to a gibbet at Montfaucon [*Môn-fo-kó'ng*], over a slow fire.

The city was filled with assassins. The Huguenots rushed half-naked into the streets, and perished by thousands. The young monarch, stationed at an open window in the Louvre, "amused himself" by firing at those who sought, in their terror, to cross the river. The butchery was horrible. Women and infants, the sick and the infirm, all were cut down without mercy. For three days and three nights the hunters of blood ceased not; and no fewer than 6000 persons were massacred in the city of Paris alone.

In the mean time, the provinces were summoned to a similar butchery; and Meaux [*Mo*], Angers [*Am-zja*], Bourges [*Boor'zj*], Lyons, Toulouse, Orleans, and Rouen [*Roo-on'g*], gained to themselves an unenviable notoriety by the zeal with which they obeyed the summons.

Other governors, however, refused to publish the murderous edict; amongst which were those of Bayonne, Mâcon [*Mar-kon*], Burgundy, Provence [*Pro-varnce*], Dauphiné [*Dó-fě-nay*], and Auvergne [*O-vairn*]. The answer of the Commandant of Bayonne was truly heroic: "Sire," wrote he to the king, "your majesty has in this good city many a loyal subject, and many a brave soldier, but not one executioner."

The number that perished in this national massacre has been estimated at 50,000, some indeed swell the number to 80,000. Henri of Navarre and prince Condé escaped only by consenting, for the nonce, to attend mass in the chapel royal.

Of the Protestant leaders who perished, the chief were the venerable Coligny, his son-in-law Téligny, the young La Rochefoucauld, Caumont de la Force, de Guerry, Antoine de Clermont, the Marquis de Renel, Pardaillan, and the captain de Piles.

¶ The day after that called St. Bartholomew, the king went in state to Notre-dame to assist in a *Te Deum* or solemn service of thanksgiving. All the bells of the city rang joyous peals; but the massacre was going on, and still were heard the shrieks of the dying, or roar of burning houses.

On the third day, with an immense retinue of ladies and cavaliers in their gayest costumes, Charles went to Montfaucon to visit the gibbet, where the murdered body of Coligny [*Co-teen-ye*] was hanging. Nothing could exceed the splendour of the cortége; for the gaudy

dressess, brought into fashion by François I., still continued, and had not yet given way to the gloomy stunted robes of the third Henri.

In the procession, was Henri of Navarre and his beautiful bride, the king and his mother Catherine, the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, the Guises, and a vast cavalcade of ladies, pages, esquires, valets, and common people, to the amount of 10,000.

From the gibbet hung a half-burnt blackened mass, bespattered with blood and dirt. The trunk was suspended by the heels, and the head was supplied by a whisp of straw twisted into a knot. "*Fragrance, sweeter than a rose, Rises from our slaughtered foes,*" cried the king, in silly doggerel, as he stood before the gibbet; and all the courtiers applauded with a laugh. He passed on; and every follower, as he went by, thought it a compliment to the king to indulge in some pleasantry, or to offer some insult.

¶ The next proceeding in this frightful drama was for the king to go in person to the Paris *parlement*, to boast in a set speech of what he had done. The grave magistrates and wise councillors heard him to the end, and then accorded him a vote of thanks for his "holy zeal."

In Rome, the news was received with unbounded enthusiasm. Gregory XIII. celebrated the event with bonfires. A state procession went to the church of St. Louis to assist in a grand *Te Deum*, and a year of jubilee was proclaimed, because "God had put it into the hearts of his faithful servants to purge the earth of heretics."

FOURTH RELIGIOUS WAR OF FRANCE (1573).

Catherine and her son looked for peace and tranquillity as the result of their crime; but when were peace and tranquillity so purchased? Civil war soon broke out more fiercely than ever. A host of Catholics embraced the reformed religion; and the protestant army was recruited by sympathisers from all parts of Europe.

Rochelle was the chief rendezvous of the Huguenots; and Charles sent his brother Henri duc d'Anjou to besiege it. The young duke invested it for six months, but, after losing 20,000 men, was obliged to draw off his troops.

Other cities were besieged with no better success; and, at length, a fourth peace was concluded on similar conditions to the other three.

Death of Charles IX. (1574). The health of the king had been rapidly declining for several months. He was extremely restless. His complexion became flushed, his eyes fierce, and his slumbers disturbed by dreams.

Latterly, he had complained of internal heat and dreadful colics. A blood-stained foam rose frequently to his mouth, and a bloody

sweat oozed from every pore of his body. His physicians thought arsenic had been given him, and strong suspicions lighted on the queen-mother.

During his last night, he moaned and wept without ceasing. "Ah! nurse, nurse, nurse! What blood! What murders! What evil counsels have I not followed!" were his last words. He was only 24 years old, and had reigned 14.

His person, character, habits, &c. Charles IX. was tall and slim, feeble and sickly. His eyes were glassy and without speculation till he became excited, when they flashed like fire. He wore his hair long, and flowing over his shoulders.

In disposition he was indolent, and without moral courage. His mother could sway him as she liked, and overcome all his scruples without difficulty.

He was fond of poetry, and wished to be considered a poet himself. His favourite author was Ronsard.

In the chase, he became excited almost to madness. He followed the wild boar with perfect fury, blowing his horn till his eyes were blood-shot, and encountering the greatest danger with foolhardy recklessness.

Like his father and brother Henri, he was passionately fond of dogs, with which his apartments were filled. An Italian greyhound was his constant companion; and, when pressed by disagreeable suitors, or desirous of breaking off a conference, he would turn to his dogs and begin patting them, or whistling a hunting tune; and if this hint did not suffice, he would petulantly exclaim, "Do you not see that I am busy?"

He dressed in the Venetian style, with huge rosettes in his shoes, at his knees, and at his wrists; a large ruff round his neck; and a plumed hat.

COSTUME IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES IX.

(1) **Ladies** were, in this reign, especially distinguished for their doublets or jerkins, which buttoned up to the breast, and looked like male attire. The stomacher of their gowns extremely piqued; the skirts full and sweeping; the collar or ruff enormously large, plaited, and standing up behind, so as to conceal the whole back of the head.

Marguerite, at her wedding-fête, wore a Turkish turban, with a veil hanging down her back to the ground. The skirt of her gown was open, and displayed a white silk petticoat. The sleeves were immensely full at the shoulders, and fell back from a rosette of pearls, leaving the arms quite bare. Her hair was parted over her forehead, and looped in bands.

(2) The **Gentlemen's** costume was less rich, but more elegant than in the preceding reigns. The coat or doublet fitted the figure; the waist was very long; the skirts descended to the knees; the sleeves were tight to the arms, and had rosettes at the cuffs.

The usual colours of the doublets, were white, gray, sky-blue, crimson-puce, or rich tawny. The materials, silk, satin, sarcenet, taffeta, or extremely fine cloth. Pearl and gold ornaments were introduced in great profusion, so that a gentleman's doublet in many cases cost £100 or more.

The ruff or standing collar, similar to that worn by James I. of England, was one of the most striking parts of the costume.

The hose were separated into upper and nether, or in other words into breeches and stockings. What is termed Venetian hose were the most fashionable. They reached to beneath the knee, and were there ornamented with large rosettes.

The material usually employed for this garment was either silk, satin, damask, or velvet; and, in some cases, from £50 to £100 were given for a single pair.

Gentlemen's shirts were made of the finest lawn or cambric, curiously stitched and embroidered; and cost from £8 to £10 apiece.

Spanish cloaks were worn over the doublets, made of fine cloth, silk, velvet, or taffata, of a scarlet, yellow, green, tawny, white, or black colour.

The head-covering was a cap and feather, encircled with a band of gold or silver. Beards were worn thick and long. Coligny [*Co-leen-ye*] used to carry his toothpick in his beard, a custom not peculiar to the old admiral.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES IX.

Michel de L'Hopital (1505—1573), the Lord Chancellor, was one of the most eminent, and certainly the most virtuous of all the characters of the 16th century. He was universally esteemed for his great integrity; and though extremely severe, was a firm advocate of toleration. He resisted, like a flint, the establishment of the Inquisition in France; and retired from office, because he could not abet the king and queen-mother in their nefarious measures against the reformers. The wisest laws and most beneficial ordinances of France, were framed by this exemplary chancellor.

Nostrodamus (1503—1566), the astrologer, was first brought into notice by his skill in arresting the progress of a pestilential disease, which ravaged Aix and Lyons. Soon afterwards, he published his *Prophetical Centuries*, which became immensely popular.

Henri II. and the queen loaded him with favours, and seemed to place credence in his predictions. It is said, that he foretold the death of the king, a prediction which raised him to the zenith of his glory. Charles IX. appointed him physician extraordinary, and went in person to invite him to his court. Nostrodâmus published an annual *Almanac*, very similar in character to that of "Francis Moore;" but his *Recueil of Prophecies*, in four-line stanzas, extending over seven centuries, is the work by which he is best known.

Ramus (1502—1572), the philosopher, excited great attention in this reign by his controversy on the "proper pronunciation of the letter Q in Latin."

Charles Dumoulin (1500—1566), a relative of Anne Boleyn, published a first-rate work, entitled *Customs of Paris*, still very highly esteemed.

Philebert Delorme (1510—1577), the architect, built the châteaux of Meuden and Anet. The latter is considered one of the best in France. He was also employed upon the Tuileries.

Brusquet (1512—1562) succeeded Triboulet as *buffon de court*, and was undoubtedly one of the most celebrated brothers of the motley that France ever produced. He held the office of court jester to three kings, Henri II., François II., and Charles IX. He was also post-master-general; and his impositions were so great, that he acquired considerable wealth.

Brusquet was an especial favourite with Cardinal de Lorraine, who kept his brilliant court in the Hôtel de Cluny of Paris. The proud churchman greatly loved his "literary soirée;" and assembled round him philosophers, poets, historians, minstrels, wits, and pretty women with or without wit, virtue, or worth. The coarse jokes of Brusquet gave no offence to this medley. It was a time when gross and even practical jokes were relished.

Celebrated as Brusquet was for his wit, he is still more noted for his collision with Peter Strozzi, a near kinsman of the queen. These two persons were eternally playing practical jokes upon each other, and boasting of the way in which one had befooled the other. At length, the matter became serious: The fool accused Strozzi of "treasonable intentions against holy catholic church," Strozzi, in revenge, accused the fool of entertaining Calvinistic views. Brusquet [*Brūs-kay*] was obliged to flee, and found a home with some Huguenots, but the change so preyed upon his spirits, that he sickened and died.

Brantome says, that Brusquet never had his equal in repartee, gesture, fun, and originality. That he enchanted every one, and kept the table in a continual roar.

One day, the fool was present at a dinner given by the count of Benevento, when a golden goblet, the lid of which was set with gems, was brought to table. The good-natured nobleman made the court buffoon a present of the goblet, but kept back the jewelled lid. Presently, Brusquet was seen wrapping up his gift in several cloths with the greatest care, and being asked what he was about, replied, "I am wrapping up my friend warm, for fear he should take cold, as the gentleman has taken away his cap." The count could not resist the sally, and made the fool a present of the lid also.

When a discussion was held respecting Calais, and who should be sent to take it, Brusquet said, he would recommend Brulart, one of the judges of Paris, notorious for receiving bribes. Being asked Why? the jester replied, "Because he takes everything."

At a banquet given to Don Felipe II. of Spain by the duke of Alva, Brusquet exhibited one of his most famous tricks: At the close of dinner, he leaped upon the table, laid himself flat, rolled himself up in the table-cloth with all the plates, spoons, knives and forks, goblets, fruit, and so on; and having thus "cleared the table," let himself down at the other end. The weight of plate was so great that Brusquet could hardly stand, but Felipe in ecstasy at the trick, begged that the clever fool might be allowed to keep the cloth and all its contents.

HENRI III. LE MIGNON.

REIGNED 15 YEARS. FROM 1574 TO 1589. *Contemporary with Elizabeth.*

Kingdom. France and Poland.

Married Louise de Vaudemont. No issue.

Residences. The Louvre, the château de Vincennes, &c.

Chief Nobles. The Guises, Joyeuse, Montmorency, Epemon, and Nemours.

History of the reign. "Vie de Henry III.," by Varillas.

INTRODUCTION.

When Henri III. came to the throne, France was divided into three principal parties: The protestants, the politics, and the catholics.

The *protestants* recognized as their leaders the young prince de Condé and Henri King of Navarre. A vast number of mounted Germans, called reiters, were attached to this party, and over-ran France, in companies varying from 50 to three times that number.

The *politic* party were the moderates, who sought to reconcile the protestants and catholics. They were the low church party, and acknowledged as their chief the king's brother, the duc d'Alençon [*Dal-arn'-so'ng*].

The high *catholic* faction was headed by the famous duke Henri of Guise, the most popular man of the day, who was supported by the all-powerful Felipe of Spain. To this faction were attached all the ecclesiastics, most of the young nobility, and a large number of the titled dames.

It would be impossible to conceive a finer person for a popular leader than the young duke. He was 6 feet 3 inches high, and proportionably stout. His chest was broad and deep; his limbs muscular and long; his head small;

his forehead broad and high; his eyes large and brilliant; his eyebrows well defined; and his nose of the Roman type.

He wore his moustaches long, and his beard pointed like that of our own king Charles I. He dressed with great simplicity and in admirable taste.

His manners were dignified; his liberality princely; his knowledge of character extraordinary; and, probably, there never existed a man, more graceful and noble in bearing, more courteous and aristocratic, more winning and commanding.

Henri III., third son of Henri II., was 23 years old when his brother died, and had been elected king of Poland only the year preceding.

As duc d'Anjou he had won golden opinions by his victories over the Huguenots at the battles of Jarnac and Moncontour; but on his accession to the throne, he was so spoiled by favourites, that he lost the respect of everyone.

He took little or no part in the administration of affairs, which he abandoned to his mother; while he allowed his minions to monopolize all the honours and offices of the crown.

Indolent, vain, and self-indulgent, he spent his time in debauchery and folly: combing his lap-dogs, fondling his monkeys or parrots, stringing death's heads, cutting out illuminated pictures, and playing with his ivory cup and ball.

Vain of his person, he used to plaster his cheeks with white, and raddle them with red; to sleep in perfumed and unctuous gloves; to dye his beard and hair; and to stain his lips, ears, and eyes.

He was extremely superstitious; had all the fears and weaknesses of a child; was afraid of apparitions; dreaded to be left alone; and required some-one to lull him to sleep with idle gossip and chit-chat.

No one could place the slightest reliance on his word. He would pretend the greatness kindness, while meditating assassination; betray confidence to the first visitor; and palter with the secret enemies of those, whose counsel he apparently accepted.

This man-milliner, "weaker than woman and worse than harlot," whose delight was to invent new fashions in dress, was called in contempt *le Mignon* (the fribble); and well deserved the degrading designation.

Strange, that this weak effeminate fop, smeared with cosmetics and perfumes, should yet have been truly brave in the face of real danger! That so indolent and spiritless a creature, who could find amusement in cutting out paper, dallying with pet dogs, training parrots to chatter, and monkeys to play tricks, should yet have possessed a mind of more than ordinary capacity! That so selfish and exacting a tyrant, who looked for friendship in return for civility, for love in return for courtesy, for devotedness in return for familiarity, should

have secured the affection of so noble and disinterested a friend as the duc Anne de Joyeuse [*Zjwoy-euze*]!

The following extract gives a lively and truthful picture of the royal taste. It is a description of the king's private rooms in the château of Vincennes.

"Innumerable parrots, macaws, and cockatoos, were ranged on perches and in cages along the sides of a large apartment, with intervals of monkeys and apes, rattling their chains, springing forward at every object near them, mouthing, chattering, and writhing themselves into fantastic forms. Six or seven small beautiful dogs of a peculiar breed were running about on the floor, snarling at one another, barking at the stranger, or teasing the other dumb animals in the same room with themselves. Baskets filled with litters of puppies were in every corner of the room; and several men and women were engaged in tending the winged and quadruped favourites of the king. Not only were the regular attendants present, but as one of the known ways to the king's regard, a great number of other persons were there, busily engaged in tending the monkeys, parrots, and dogs. Amongst the rest, there were no less than five dwarfs, four others being in actual attendance upon the king. None were above three feet and a half in height, some were deformed and distorted in a most fearful manner; but one there was most perfectly and beautifully formed, who seemed to hold the others in contempt. The voices of almost all of them were cracked and screaming; and the sounds of their tongues, mingled with the yelping of the dogs, the chattering of the monkeys, and the various words repeated in different languages by the loquacious birds along the wall, made quite a Babel of sounds."—*Henry of Guise.*

His favourites. The first favourite of the royal Minion was Schomberg. Then Quelus and Maurignon, [*Mo-reen'-yôn'g*] both of whom were killed by duke Henri of Guise in duels. Next St. Mégrin, who was assassinated by the duc de Mayenne [*My-yenn*]. And lastly, the duc d'Epéron, with the two brothers Anne and Henri de Joyeuse.

The duc d'Epéron was a mere place-hunter. His name was Jean Nogaret. He was successively created baron, duke, and a peer of France. He was lord high admiral, colonel-general of the line, and governor of half the provinces of the kingdom.

Far less mercenary and covetous, Anne de Joyeuse was, nevertheless, made a duke, peer of France, admiral, first gentleman of the bed-chamber, and governor of Normandy; but he really loved the king, and was sincerely loved by him in return. Henri could deny him nothing; could be led by him as easily as one of his own spaniels; and was always whimpering when he was absent; so that the people used to say there were three sovereigns: Henri III. the nominal king, Anne de Joyeuse [*Zjwoy-euze*] the king's king, and Henri de Guise [*Geaze*] the people's king.

FIFTH RELIGIOUS WAR OF FRANCE (1575, 1576).

The protestants saw with horror one of the chief agents of the Bartholomew massacre promoted to the throne; and his ambitious brother the duc d'Alençon made overtures to them, under the hope of supplanting him.

Accordingly, the protestant and politic parties coalesced, with the young prince de Condé and Henri of Navarre at their head. On the

other hand, the catholics, with Henri of Guise as their leader, joined the royal troops; and constant skirmishes took place between them.

In one, which occurred at *Dormans*, in the department of the Marne, the duc de Guise received a fearful sword-cut, which left a scar upon his face, from which he was surnamed *Balafré* (scarred).

Henri III., jealous of the growing popularity of Guise [*Geaze*], and fearful of the power which the command of the royal troops threw into his hands, requested Catherine to negotiate a peace.

The queen-mother instantly repaired to the camp of the confederates, and held a private interview with her son. The result of which was a peace, called in history *la paix de Monsieur*.* It was signed at Loches (*Loash*), in Touraine.

By the terms of this treaty, the appanage of Alençon was tripled; and from the province of Anjou, which formed a part, the duke was henceforth styled the duc d'Anjou [*Darn-zjoo*], a title borne by his elder brother up to the time of his coronation.

The protestants were promised the free exercise of their religion in every part of the kingdom except Paris; were made eligible to all honours and offices of the state; and were assured that a States-General should be convened at Blois [*Blwor*] with the least possible delay.

The **Holy League** (1576). The high catholic party took umbrage at this treaty, and duke Henri of Guise induced them to leave the royalists, and form themselves into a *Holy League* for the defence of the "Holy Catholic Church," against the encroachments of the reformers.

The league proposed to itself three objects: To exterminate the Calvinists, shut up the king in a monastery, and crown the duke of Guise [*Geaze*].

Paris was made the centre of operations, but subsidiary committees were formed in almost every part of the kingdom. The pope gave it his sanction; but its true strength lay in Felipe II. of Spain, who supported it both with money and men.

SIXTH RELIGIOUS WAR OF FRANCE (1577).

The States-General convened at Blois [*Blwor*], under the influence of the League, revoked the treaty of Loches [*Loash*], and civil war broke out for the sixth time.

The protestants were overmastered; and the king, who thought they formed a wholesome check upon the Guises, by no means wishing

* Monsieur, without a proper name after it, was the designation given to the king's brother in the ancient régime. If the king had more than one brother, the eldest only was monsieur. The last two princes so called were the comte de Provence (*Louis XVIII.*), in the reign of his brother Louis XVI.; and the comte d'Artois (*Charles IX.*), in the reign of Louis XVIII.

to extirpate them, concluded with them another peace, called the *Treaty of Poitiers*; by which they were again allowed the free exercise of their religion, and the right of election to all offices and honours in the state. Places of safety were, furthermore, assigned them, and separate judges in the different *parlements*.

The king now abandoned himself to a life of debauchery almost unparalleled; and a mad vertigo took possession of the court, which seemed occupied solely with frivolity, prostitution, duels, and murder.

All bounties and dignities were lavished upon the king's favourites; murder went unpunished; the king's clemency was to be bought for money, or extorted by fear; the Huguenots only were punished for offences. Licentiousness had no bounds; decency was outraged with unblushing effrontery; and the king, dressed as a courtesan, presided at the infamous festivals of his queen-mother.

SEVENTH RELIGIOUS WAR OF FRANCE (1577, 1578).

Under one frivolous pretext or another, war soon broke out afresh in all parts of the kingdom.

The king, under hope of provoking Henri of Navarre into a domestic broil, wrote to him a private letter, accusing Marguerite his wife of infidelity.

His object was two-fold: first to distract the attention of the Béarnais from the religious wars to his own domestic affairs; and then to foment a quarrel with him for ill-treating his sister.

The Béarnais took no notice of the king's letter, but immediately laid siege to the town of Cahors in Guyenne, which had been promised him as a part of his wife's dowry, but had hitherto been withheld.

Having carried the town with a *coup-de-main*, he established there a strong protestant garrison.

This so terrified the French king that he concluded another treaty of peace with the Huguenots, greatly to their advantage.

This war is called *The War of the Lovers*, because it was provoked by some scandalous intrigues of gallantry.

One of the most important objects which it accomplished was, to detach again the duc d'Anjou from the royal party, and ally him to that of the reformers.

The duke wanted to make himself master of Belgium, and Henri of Navarre promised to aid him. He had also proposed himself in marriage to queen Elizabeth, and was therefore obliged to favour the protestant faction.

How his offer would have terminated, had he lived, it is not possible to predict; but while it was still under consideration, the despotic duke was driven out of Flanders; retired to his private residence near Paris; and died in the course of a few weeks.

François duc d'Alençon, fourth son of Henry II., tried every artifice to gain a throne; intriguing first for the petty kingdom of Navarre, then for the throne of France, and then for England. He was, at last, invited to become prince of Flanders, when that country was threatened by the Spaniards. As soon as this appointment was made, Spain summoned the Guises to their aid, and Henri de Guise sent Salcède, a Spaniard, to assassinate him; but the project failed, and Salcède [*Sal-sade*] was torn to pieces by four wild horses.

In the mean time, the Flemings were very slow to acknowledge the sovereignty of the duke; and François, chafing with impatience, laid siege to Antwerp. He was assisted by his royal brother, who sent to his aid a squadron under the command of Joyeuse; but the people of Antwerp burnt up the fleet, and utterly annihilated the besiegers, by opening the dykes, and laying the whole country under water. Upon the flight of the duke, the Spaniards environed the city; reduced it to obedience; and removed the principal inhabitants to Amsterdam.

The **Council of Sixteen** (1584). The duc d'Anjou being dead, and the reigning sovereign childless, the catholics began to speculate upon a successor at the demise of the king. The nearest heir was Henri of Navarre, but he was a heretic. The next was his uncle, the old Cardinal de Bourbon.

Guise favoured the claim of the cardinal, who was accordingly recognized by his party as heir to the throne. An association was formed in the bosom of the league to carry out this recognition. It was called the *Council of Sixteen*, because it consisted of 16 members, each of whom had control over a sixteenth part of the capital. None of the Guises [*Geazez*] were amongst the number, but there was an understanding between them, and all Paris was, in reality, under the duke's thumb.

Assassination of Henri of Guise (1588). Henri of Guise became daily more and more popular, as the king, by his indecent conduct, voluptuous frivolity, disregard of truth, and lavish gifts upon his favourites, became more and more contemptible.

The Parisians could not help comparing their idolized duke, the most puissant, manly, chivalrous man of Europe, with the paltry minion placed upon the throne.

At length, the jealousy of the king was effectually aroused. He became alarmed at the duke's popularity, and foolishly forbade him to set foot within the capital.

The duke demanded the reason of this prohibition; and went to Paris under colour of clearing himself, and rebutting any charges which might be preferred against him. He was received by the people with acclamations; and welcomed with apparent cordiality by Catherine, who undertook to mediate between him and her royal son.

Henri III. consented to receive him, and reproved him sharply for forcing himself into the city. The duke replied with all apparent submission; and was suffered to leave the presence-chamber unharmed.

In the mean time, the king sent for his Swiss-guards, about 800 in number, who were introduced secretly into the city at midnight.

The sight of these mercenaries, parading the street next morning, rendered the people furious: The pavement was torn up; immense chains were drawn across the streets; and barricades* were formed of barrels filled with sand and stones, behind which the citizens lay in ambush, armed with arquebuses, pistols, swords, daggers, and pikes.

The bottom windows of all the houses in the city were closed; but at every other window stood some-one with musketoon, arquebus, or paving stones, to aim at the royal guards as they passed by.

The Swiss, blocked in on all sides, were shot down without the power of resistance or self-defence; and would have been wholly exterminated, if the duke himself had not interfered to prevent the massacre.

Mounted on his charger, with his riding-whip in his hand, he issued from his hotel. The crowd received him with frantic enthusiasm, for the "people were mad after him." Penetrating to the places where the unfortunate guards were posted, he stopped the firing; put an end to the riot; and suffered the guards to leave the city without further molestation.

In the mean time, the foolish king fled to Chartres [*Shart'r*], leaving his rival master of Paris.

Some days now elapsed, during which the queen-mother acted as mediator, and again patched up an apparent reconciliation between the king and the duke.

Epernon, the obnoxious favourite, was stripped of his honours and banished; Guise was created generalissimo of the royal forces, grand-master of the household, and lieutenant-general of France; and the States-general was summoned to meet at Blois [*Bluor*], to deliberate on the grievances of the nation.

All variance seemed to be adjusted. The king received the duke with every indication of friendship; and even swore at the altar to love him, honour him, and protect him.

Seven months passed by from the famous *day of the barricades*; the king's jealousy revived; and he resolved, at length, to cut off his rival by private assassination.

The duke received several warnings of this intention, but positively refused to withdraw from the threatened danger, under the full conviction that the king would not dare to molest him.

On the 23rd of December, a council was summoned to the banquet-hall of the castle at break of day; and the king requested the duke to be present, as "affairs of great moment were about to be brought forward."

* The French for barrels is *barriques*, and from these "barriques," filled with sand, the term "barricade" is derived.

Between the banquet-hall and a small side-room used by the king as his private chamber, was a long corridor, where the king posted nine of his 45 guardsmen, armed with daggers.

The duke entered the council-room, and was told that the king wished to speak with him in his private closet, before the business of the day began. Lifting up the arras, he entered the corridor to obey the summons, when the assassins fell upon him and murdered him.

The treacherous monarch heard him fall, and, rushing from his closet, set his foot upon the bleeding neck of his rival, exclaiming as he did so, "Venomous beast, thou shalt no more spit forth thy pernicious poison!"

The cardinal de Guise, who had just entered the banquet-hall, hearing his brother cry for help, ran into the corridor, but was instantly arrested; and next morning, was found dead in the tower of Moulins [*Moo-lah'n*].

Twelve days afterwards died Catherine, the queen-mother. She had reigned for 30 years in the name of her sons, and had committed many a dark deed; but the murder of the duke was contrived and executed, not only without her instigation, but contrary to her express approval.

Catherine de Medicis (1519—1589), daughter of Lorenzo duke of Urbino, was brought up in the school of Machiavelli and Borgia, by whom she had been taught to dissemble and intrigue. At the age of 14, she was married to Henri II. of France, and found herself so friendless and neglected, that her spirit was cowed, and all persons pitied her.

With the accession of her sons, her ambition developed itself; and during the reign of Charles IX. and Henri III. the government fell entirely into her hands.

She was a most unprincipled woman, and has been suspected of poisoning Jeanne d'Albret queen of Navarre, Charles IX. and François due d'Alençon her own sons, the princess de Condé, and several other persons. Be this suspicion as it may, there can be no doubt, that she entered into a secret treaty with Spain to extirpate the Protestants, and subsequently plotted with the Guises the Massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day.

Catherine de Médicis was tall and stately, fat and extremely fair. Her eyebrows were large; eyes keen and fiery; carriage dignified; bearing cold and haughty. She was extremely vain of her hands, arms, and feet; and was the first person in France to wear tight silk stockings. She introduced dancing into Paris, and set the fashion of wearing very short dresses, ostensibly to shew the steps, but, in reality, to display her ankles and stockings.

Besides dancing, she introduced side-saddles, being passionately fond of horse-exercise, especially hunting. Hitherto, ladies had been accustomed to ride on a pad, with a board suspended to it on which their feet rested.

One of her credulities was a belief in magic and astrology. She always wore a charm, made of an infant's cawl; and sent to Italy for Ruggiére [*Ru-ge-ā-re*], the astrologer, whom she consulted on every question of interest.

After the death of her royal husband, queen Catherine always wore mourning. Her usual dress was a black velvet gown, fitting tightly round the shoulders and waist, but flowing away in ample folds behind. Her hair was entirely covered with black silk and lace. Her constant companion was a little lap-dog called Phœbé, given her by her son-in-law Henri of Navarre.

Catherine de Médicis inherited all the fine taste of her grandfather, and greatly encouraged the cultivation of the fine arts. The palace of the Tuileries and royal château of Monceau [*Môn-so*] were built under her direction. Her extravagance, however, exhausted the public coffers; her unprincipled polity nearly subverted the

monarchy; her scandalous court sadly demoralized society; and many a man, whose influence she feared, was allured by her beautiful attendants into a life of debauchery and idleness.

Assassination of Henri III. (1589). No sooner was the death of Guise known in Paris, than the whole city was in a tumult. Every shop was closed; every church hung with black. The doctors of the Sorbonne pronounce the king dethroned; and the management of affairs was vested in the hands of the duc de Mayenne [*My-yenn*] the late chief's brother.

In due time, came a bull from Rome excommunicating the assassin; and any one, who showed sympathy or allegiance to the hateful monarch, was arrested and hurried to the Bastille.

In this extremity, but one resource remained open to him, the king of Navarre, whom he had recently disinherited. Him he sent for; and the two kinsmen held an interview at Plessis-lès-Tours, in which they agreed to march upon Paris, and bring it to submission.

They pitched their tents at St. Cloud [*San-Cloo*]; and, while lying there, a monk named Jacques Clement craved admission to his Majesty of France on business of great moment. He was immediately conducted into the presence of the king, and presented a letter; but, while Henri was reading it, stabbed him in the stomach with a knife.

The king wrenched the knife from the wound; struck the assassin with it in the face; called for help; and the guards rushing in dispatched the murderer on the spot.

The wound did not appear fatal at first; but, in a few hours, dangerous symptoms manifested themselves, and it soon became evident that life was ebbing fast. The dying monarch embraced his brother-in-law; declared him his successor; prayed him to renounce the reformed religion; and died.

He was the last of the Valois dynasty, which had continued for 260 years, and had given to France five kings, the reigns of whom were all disastrous.

~~~~~ GENERAL PROGRESS OF THE NATION.

Although the kings of the Valois-Angoulême dynasty were all bad men, and their reigns full of civil wars, yet the arts and sciences during this epoch made considerable progress.

This was especially the case with the art of medicine, architecture, and the manufacture of silk, tapestry, and glass. Telescopes were introduced; and watches and coaches became pretty common.

Printing and drawing were just rising into splendour at the close of the dynasty; poetry was constructed on the classic model; and the attention of the nation was directed to the cultivation of gardens.

The first efforts towards horticulture were almost limited to evergreens; but Du Bellay, bishop of Le-Mans, introduced a taste for fruits and flowers, and imported a multitude of plants from foreign countries. The gardens were

not like those we are now accustomed to, but consisted of rows of evergreens, long straight alleys, high terraces, broad green plots, statues, vases containing flowers, grottoes, alcoves, and fictitious ruins.

Snuff was first used in France in the reign of Charles IX.; and Catherine de Médicis was so fond of it, that it used to be called *The Queen's Herb*. Dancing was introduced from Italy; but, in the court of Charles IX., court dances were so slow and solemn, that they were set to psalm-tunes. Side-saddles were brought into use about the same time.

¶ Under the Valois-Angoulême dynasty the power and dominion of France was very greatly augmented. The crown was strengthened by the acquisition and union of several important fiefs; and, what was more important still, the English were driven from the kingdom.

At the same time, the moral and civil condition of the people was most wretched: The courts of justice were notoriously corrupt; the infliction of torture was common; the venality of judges undisguised; and secret poisoning, private assassination, duelling, and highway robbery, were connived at or treated with levity.

Never was there a period when the passions of men were so unrestrained; when cruelty, debauchery, and folly, so generally prevailed; when loyalty was so rare, good faith so generally wanting, and life so lightly esteemed.

Men heard, almost with unconcern, that the husband had "drugged the posset" of his wife, and the wife had encompassed her husband's death. Indeed, the art of poisoning, in the time of Catherine de Médicis, was brought to a state of almost absolute perfection.

Poison was mixed, not only with food and drink, but with the perfume of flowers, the breeze of a fan, or the touch of a pair of gloves; it was diffused through the air of a room, or communicated to the oil of a lamp, the leaves of a book, the fabric of a dress, and even to the lips of apparent affection.

Robbery was no less unheeded. No one would have ventured abroad without an armed escort. No traveller would have thought it strange, had he been stopped on the high road, and plundered of his purse, or kept close prisoner till his ransom was paid. No gentleman would have been surprised, if his castle had been attacked by a party of marauders or German reiters. And no lady would have felt herself secure, even in the inmost penetralia of her own private dwelling.

Amidst all this extravagance, spoliation, and expense, the poverty of the nation was complete. Commerce was almost extinct. Whole provinces remained uncultivated. And if, perchance, a corn-rick was left standing at a homestead, or a herd of cattle was driven out to pasture, it was sure to be either stolen or destroyed.

COSTUME IN THE REIGN OF HENRI III.

(1) **Henri III.** was bald, probably, from the dye which he used; and, in order to conceal his baldness, adopted a Turkish turban. The duc de Sully says, he found him "in his closet; a sword was by his side, a short cloak on his shoulders, a little turban on his head, and about his neck was hung a basket in which were two or three lap-dogs no bigger than my fist."

He was very fond of *bilboquet* (cup and ball); and in his reign, every fine gentleman, every page and lacquey, and even judges and magistrates in the different *parlements*, had one of these play-things in his hand at all hours of the day.

His eye was sunk in its dark orbit; his mouth trembled with nervous contractions; his gaze was unsteady; and his person so spare, that he looked like a walking spectre.

He wore a black velvet pourpoint or doublet, with black fringe; his toque had a large diamond in front, and a snow-white ostrich feather. As he sat at home or in his carriage, he was perpetually stroking a little black puppy with his thin white fingers.

(2) **Gentlemen.** The trunk-hose, in this reign, were closer-fitting than in the preceding. Towards the close of it, the ruff was wholly discontinued; and, altogether, the dresses were less ornamented, and in better taste.

(3) **Ladies.** The gown was similar to that of the preceding reign, with the exception of the sleeve, which was now made close to the wrist. The hair was no longer parted in plain bands, but curled, frizzled, crisped, turned back in the "Mary Stuart style," or wholly brushed off the forehead, and profusely ornamented with diamonds made into stars. The "Stuart cap" was fashionable for married ladies.

In the street, all ladies wore masks or visors, and a silk scarf thrown over their head. Looking-glasses were carried in their hands, and a pocket mirror at their side.

The fingers were covered with rings. Bracelets and ear-rings were fashionable. Perfumes and cosmetics indispensable.

The expense of dress was something frightful. It required 20 yards of material, at two or three guineas a yard, to make a gown, and the trimming was proportionably extravagant.

Stockings were made of silk, worsted, thread, and cloth, of green, red, white, russet, and brown colours, and ornamented with *clocks*.

The shoes, were black, white, green, or yellow, and made of velvet, Spanish leather, or embroidered silk. The toilet must have occupied a very large part of the day.

(4) **Military.** The protestant and catholic soldiers had their respective badges. The former *white* jackets and scarfs, the latter *crimson* ones.

The first attempt at a military uniform was made by Henri III., who clothed his Swiss guards in grey.

Armour was general, but almost all of it came from Italy, as the French were never skilful in working iron. The arquebus was nearly superseded by the musket, and the cavalry lance by the horse-pistol.

THE FIRST FRENCH PLEIAD.*

The close of the 16th century is especially remarkable for a race of poets, called the "French Pleiad" [*Ply-ad*]. Hitherto, the only use made of the Greek and Latin classics had been to *translate* them; the "Pleiad" did not translate, but imitate. They took the classic authors as their models, and wrote French poetry after the same style, a system which remained in fashion more than half a century.

The names of the First French Pleiad are Ronsard, Dorat [*Do-rar*], Du Bellay, Remi-Belleau, Jodelle, Baif, and Thiard [*Tee-yar*]. Of these, Dorat, Baif, and Thiard have no claim whatever to the title of poets.

Ronsard (1524—1585) was by far the greatest of the seven Pleiad poets of France. Never was author more popular. Every well-educated person made him his study. Henri II. and his three royal sons bestowed on him several marks of favour; indeed, Charles IX. entertained for him a kind of morbid affection.

* The Pleiadēs, according to Greek mythology, were seven sisters, who killed themselves from grief, and were afterwards placed, as stars, at the back of Taurus, where they form a cluster, like a bunch of grapes.

The natives of Alexandria applied the term to seven Greek poets, who flourished in the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus.

The poems of Ronsard consist of sonnets, madrigals, eclogues, elegies, odes, and hymns, together with an epic called the *Franciade*. His sonnets are constructed on the model of Petrarch; his epic on that of Virgil; his odes in imitation of Horace, Anacræon, and Pindar.

Much is very excellent, but his classic affectations degenerate into pedantry, and many a good idea is injured by frenchified Greek or Latin.

Du-Bellay (1524—1560), called the French *Ovid*, and *Father of grace and elegance*, introduced into France the sonnet. Our own Spencer speaks of him, as "first garland of free poesy, that France brought forth." He preceded Ronsard in point of time, but never attained to the same popularity.

His principal poems are classed under the titles of the "Olive," the "Regrets," "Elegies," and "Hymns." The word "Olive" is an anagram on the word *Viole*, the name of the lady whom he celebrates in his 115 sonnets, under the figure of an olive, as Petrarch had shadowed forth his Laura, under the figure of a laurel.

In the "Regrets" we have a satirical poem on *Venice* which has never been surpassed.

Of his "Elegies," those on a *Little Dog*, a *Cat*, and on the *Abbé Bonnet*, are very droll. And of his "Hymns," that in *praise of Deafness*, is one of the best mock encomiums ever written.

Belleau (1528—1577) was called by his contemporaries the *Painter of Nature*, a compliment he well deserves. His chief work is "Loves and Transformations of the Precious Stones." His description of Bacchus riding on his tigers, and the landscape-scene where Hyacinthus dies, are very rich and true to nature. Of his minor poems, his *Song on April* is deservedly esteemed, and the "Shepherd's Calendar" of Spencer is greatly indebted to it.

Jodell (1532—1573) is the father of the French drama. His tragedies (*Cleopatra* and *Dido*) are constructed on the model of the Greek plays.

FRENCH SCULPTORS.

The early history of sculpture, not only in France, but also in Germany and Spain, is so closely connected with the revival of art in Italy, that it requires no distinct mention; but as the art progressed, the sculpture of each nation established a separate claim; and in France, many names of high merit are to be met with.

Goujon and Pilon, who lived in the 16th century, may be termed the *Fathers of French Sculpture*. The former, called the *Corregio* [*Cor-ra'-je-o*] of sculptors, was slain in the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

In the 17th and 18th centuries lived Puget [*Pu-zjay*], the most classical of French sculptors; Girardon, famous for the purity of his designs and beauty of his attitudes; Pigalle [*Pe-gall*], called the French *Phidias*; and Houdon [*Hoo-dôn'g*] famous for his busts.

Of living artists, Pradier [*Prar-dë-a*] is the best known, though some others have attained considerable reputation.

The performances of the best French sculptors will bear comparison with those of any modern nation, in knowledge of form, careful execution, and bold conception. The mode of treatment, however, partakes of the taste of each particular period, and, therefore, the works of the 17th century have a theatrical air. In other respects, the high qualities of these artists admit of no dispute.

The best pieces of Puget are *Milo*; *Alexander and Diogenes* (both in the Louvre); *Andromeda* (at Versailles); *Alexander Sauli*, St. Sebastian, and St. Philip Neri (all at Genoa); and his two bas-reliefs, the *Assumption* and the *Plague of Milan*.

The master-works of Girardon are his marble groups of *Apollo and Thetis*, *Pluto and Proserpine*, *Winter* in the garden of Versailles, the mausoleum of *Richelieu* in the Sorbonne, and that of *Louvois* in the church of the Capucines.

The most famous works of Pigalle, are his *Venus*, *Mercury*, and tomb of Marshal *Saxe*.

N.B. Of sculptors of the present century, we ought not to omit the name of the princess Marie, one of the daughters of Louis-Philippe. Her *Jeanne d'Arc* in Versailles is one of the best of modern statues, noble in bearing, elevated in expression, of admirable simplicity of design, and truly feminine in character. Her *Perie taking in the Tear*, *Ahasuerus* and *Esther*, *Pilgrim*, and some of her busts, are also very excellent.

HENRI IV. LE GRAND.

(And by posterity called "le bon.")

REIGNED 21 YEARS. FROM 1589 TO 1610. *Contemporary with Elizabeth and James I.**Kingdom.* 1589. Navarre, Foix, Albret, Béarn, Armagnac, and Périgord, added by right of inheritance.

1601. Bresse, Bugey, Valromey, and Gex, received in exchange for Saluces.

Married twice: First, Marguerite de Valois, daughter of Henri II. She was divorced, and he then married Maria de' Medici, daughter of the duke of Tuscany.*Issue* by his second wife only. Two sons and three daughters; viz., Louis, who succeeded him; Gaston-Jean-Baptiste, duc d'Orléans; Elisabeth, who married Felipe IV. of Spain; Christiana, who married the duke of Savoy; and Henrietta-Maria, who married Charles I. of England.

SECT. I. THE STRUGGLE FOR THE CROWN. (1589—1596.)

§ 1. THE DIFFICULTIES HE HAD TO ENCOUNTER.

The right of Henri IV. to the crown was recognized by Henri III. in his dying moments; but never prince was beset with greater difficulties in the attainment of his legal claim.

His difficulties arose from the following sources: He was very distantly related to the last king; was without friends, money, or soldiers; had formidable rivals and powerful enemies; and lastly, entertained religious opinions hateful to most of his new subjects.

(1) Though he was the nearest male heir, his claim was extremely remote. He was tenth in descent from Robert, sixth son of Louis IX., surnamed *the Saint*. Hence, he was related to the late king only in the eleventh degree; and this remoteness of relationship, gave a handle to his enemies to dispute his claim.

(2) As he was a Protestant, most of the high Catholic lords withdrew from his standard; and even those who remained were not cordial adherents. Neither could his own relations give him any help. The prince de Condé was a mere boy; and the prince's three uncles were men without either influence or ability.

(3) The great Catholic party put forward the old cardinal de Bourbon, as heir to the crown, and actually proclaimed him king, under the name and title of Charles X. He was, at the time, a prisoner, and was no party to the movement; but the faction felt bound to fix upon some one, till they were strong enough to elevate Charles de Lorraine duc de Mayenne [*My-yenn*] to the throne.

(4) The pope was opposed to the Béarnais on account of his Calvinistic views; and Felipe II. of Spain fomented the disturbance, with the hope of securing the throne to his daughter.

(5) Lastly, the Sorbonne fulminated against him; declared it would be a "mortal sin" to recognize his title; and pronounced every one excommunicate who sided with him.

§ 2. THE DIFFICULTIES SURMOUNTED.

(1) **Battle of Arques (1589).** It was very uphill work, and nothing remained for him but to fight for his crown against these fearful odds.

He immediately withdrew from St. Cloud [*San-Cloo*] into Normandy, whither the duc de Mayenne [*My-yenn*] followed him with 30,000 men, promising the Parisians to bring him bound, and deliver him into their hands. But the issue turned out otherwise.

The Béarnais, with 7000 men, waited the attack at Arques [*Ark*], near Dieppe [*De-ep*]; and, instead of being taken captive, vanquished the boaster, and put him to ignominious flight. A reinforcement of 5000 English arrived soon after the battle, and the conqueror withdrew to Tours [*Toor*], his stronghold.

(2) **Battle of Ivry (1590).** The year following, Henri marched towards Paris, and the duke went forth again to meet him. The two armies halted on the plains of Ivry, some 50 miles west of the city.

Just before the engagement began, Henri advanced on horseback, bareheaded; and exclaimed in prayer, "Lord, Thou knowest all things. If it be for Thy glory and my people's good, favour my cause, and prosper the work of my hands." And all the host shouted "Amen."

The battle began. The duke's army was discomfited. A brilliant victory was won. And the white-plumed conqueror marched at once upon Paris, and blockaded it.

In the meantime, the old cardinal de Bourbon died; and thus one of the stumbling-blocks was taken out of his path.

The siege of Paris did not succeed, for the duc de Mayenne induced Alexander Farnese [*Far-nay-ze*] the Spanish general in Flanders, to march to its relief; and Henri, unwilling to encounter so redoubtable a warrior, raised the siege, and retreated to St. Denis [*San Dnee'*].

(3) **Death of Farnese (1591).** Having reinforced his army, Henri next marched against Rouen [*Roo-on'g*], and set down before it. Again the duke of Parma advanced against him, and compelled him to retreat.

The next six months were spent in marches and counter-marches, skirmishes and mutual annoyances; and then the death of Alexander Farnese [*Far-nay-ze*] relieved the king of another enemy.

(4) **Abjuration of Henri IV. (1593—1596).** Charles X. the phantom king, was dead, and the duke of Parma was dead; but Henri still found that his religion raised up a host of enemies, and gave ground to the ambitious to plot against him.

Felipe II. of Spain had a daughter, and Charles duc de Guise was a young man, unmarried. The States-General proposed that these

two young people should be united, and then be proclaimed king and queen of France.

The suggestion was very hateful to the nation, which by no means desired to be placed under the yoke of Spain; and Henri, taking advantage of this popular feeling, announced his intention of renouncing Protestantism, and embracing the Catholic faith.

From this moment, numbers flocked daily to his standard. He grew stronger and stronger. And nothing was wanting to complete his success, but the pope's formal absolution.

In the meantime, Henri was solemnly crowned at Chartres [*Shart'r*]. The old Carlovingian crown had been melted down by the Catholics, to defray the expenses of the late wars, and therefore a new crown was made for the occasion. (1594.)

Being crowned, he was received into Paris. The pope sent the long-desired absolution. The duc de Mayenne [*My-yenn*] resisted no longer, but entered into his service, and was ever after one of his most faithful adherents. The remaining members of the league followed; and thus France, at last, saw the termination of those troubles, which for 36 years had distracted the kingdom. (1598.)

SECT. II. POLITICAL EVENTS BETWEEN THE CORONATION AND DEATH OF HENRI IV.

Edict of Nantes (1598). Being delivered from the cares of foreign and domestic wars, Henri-quatre inaugurated his reign by the famous *Edict of Nantes*, granting perfect toleration to all Protestants, and placing them on entire equality with Catholic subjects.

Divorce and Second Marriage (1600). The Béarnais, long before he came to the French crown, had espoused Marguerite, the sister of Charles IX.; but she had no issue, and they had lived separate for 15 years.

The Paris *parlement* advised him now to put her away, and seek another wife; and the supreme pontiff granted the necessary divorce. His second choice was Maria de' Medici [*Med'e-che*], called in French history Marie de Médicis [*Med'e-ce*], daughter of the grand-duke of Florence, and niece of Clement VIII.

It was an unhappy union, as Marie was wholly swayed by her Italian favourites; and her contentions with the king kept the court in continual discord.

La Belle Gabrielle (1565—1599). Henri, towards the close of the year 1590, happened to sojourn for a night at the château de Cœuvres, belonging to Antoine d'Estrées, grand-master of artillery and governor of the Ile-de-France. The daughter of the house, Gabrielle, was a beautiful young creature, barely 19 years of age, for whom the amorous monarch instantly conceived a violent passion.

To throw a flimsy veil over his intrigue, he married her to Damerval de Liancourt, and then took her to live with himself at court. He created her duchess of Beaufort, and heaped honours upon her parents.

The beautiful Gabrielle spent her life most royally; she was so gentle, affable, and benevolent, that everybody loved her, but no one so intensely as the king. It is said, that Henri contemplated divorcing Marguerite, in order to marry her, when she died from eating an orange. Rumour says it was poisoned, but of this there is no proof.

French song and poem, opera and drama, have celebrated the loves of Henri-Quatre and La-belle-Gabrielle. Their son was *Cesar-Monsieur*, chief of the illustrious House of Vendôme.

Biron's Conspiracy (1602). Charles-de-Gontaut, duc de Biron, was one of the first nobles to recognize the sovereignty of Henri, and served him for several years with true devotion and heroic valour. He was present at the battles of Arques [*Ark*] and Ivry, and at the sieges of Paris and Rouen [*Roo-on'g*], where he won for himself golden opinions.

In recompense for these services, the Béarnais made him admiral of France, grand marshal, governor of Burgundy, and ambassador on one or two important occasions.

Forgetful of these favours, Biron conspired with Spain and Savoy to dethrone his patron, on consideration of receiving in marriage the daughter of the duke of Savoy, and the full sovereignty of Burgundy.

One of the conspirators revealed the plot to the government; and Biron was sent to the Bastille. Henri sought two or three times to induce him to confess his crime and sue for pardon, but he would not. The king sincerely wished his acquittal, but the ungrateful duke was found guilty and beheaded.

The Jesuits Recalled (1603). Henri was now at the climax of his glory: master of a flourishing kingdom; with a rich treasury, a fine army, and the best artillery in the world, he found himself respected by all the sovereigns of Europe. Pope Paul V. courted his favour; and nothing remained to wipe out every stain of his early "heresy" but to recall the Jesuits, who had been banished from France by Philippe-le-Bel. This he did, at the solicitation of the pope, and advice of his confessor.

Intrigues of Henri IV. The domestic life of Henri the Great was by no means happy. His young wife was of a haughty jealous temper, and the open gallantries of the king gave her ample provocation.

¶ Amongst other unpardonable intrigues, he formed an attachment to the youngest daughter of the comte d'Entragues [*Darn-trarg*], and went frequently in disguise to visit her. On one occasion he was attacked in a forest by the count, who wanted to seize him, and make a market of the secret. Henri owed his safety to his personal courage; pardoned the insolent count, but never again visited the beautiful Henriette.

¶ His next *penchant* was for Charlotte-de-Montmorency, whom he had bestowed in marriage on the young prince de Condé.

The prince and his bride fled the kingdom; and Charlotte was placed under the protection of the archduchess of the Netherlands.

Henri, furious at this flight, declared war against the archduke; but before starting on this expedition, appointed his queen regent, and gave orders for her coronation.

Assassination of Henry IV. (1610). The day after the queen's coronation, the king felt unusually depressed in mind. After dinner, one of his courtiers observed to him, "Sire, your majesty seems pensive to-day, perhaps a little air would be desirable."

"Well thought of," replied the monarch. "I will go and see Sully, who is indisposed." Accordingly, he left the Louvre with a small retinue in an open carriage; but had not driven far, when the horses were arrested, and a man named Ravaillac [*Rav-i-yak*], jumping on the hind wheel, struck the king with a large knife, which pierced his heart.

The murderer never attempted to escape, but was seized in a moment, and put to the torture to make him reveal his accomplices. The emperor of Germany, the king of Spain, the young queen, the Jesuits, were in turn suspected; but Ravaillac declared they had no part nor lot in the matter, that he himself had planned the deed and executed it solely for God's glory.

Such was the confession of this madman or fanatic. The whole city was mad with rage, and would have torn him limb from limb. Every shop was closed; and the general cry was, "We have lost a father and a friend!"

Henri-le-Bon was indeed the "father and the friend" of his subjects. Their happiness and prosperity were his constant care. He improved their lot; created for them numerous sources of wealth; and raised the kingdom, in twelve years, from poverty and disorder, to unparalleled greatness and honour.

Many a sovereign has been called *Great*, but none ever deserved the title better than the fourth Henri, the pride and glory of the French nation; who did more for the substantial good of France in his short reign, than any of his predecessors or successors either.

His Person and Character. He was tall and well made; had a clear animated complexion, well-proportioned features, a sparkling eye, a merry mouth, and an open engaging countenance. His beard was thick and crisp; his moustaches large and shaggy; his hair at 40 almost grey, probably from the use of his heavy helmet. His skin was sun-burnt and swarthy; his cheek-bones prominent; his nose long and hooked; his chin projecting, and forming with his nose what is termed a *nutcracker mouth*.

He was blessed with a frank cheerful disposition, and gay buoyant spirits. Prompt and vigilant, he was always ready to act. He

was sparing in his personal expenses, but generous and liberal to others.

He possessed, in an eminent degree, valour and clemency; and subdued his enemies as much by the latter as by the former. He was a man of singular simplicity of manners, and wholly without artifice or courtly dissimulation.

His tenderness of heart endeared him particularly to his domestics and the poor. To those who injured him, he was always ready to hold out the hand of forgiveness; and to those who loved him, he was an abiding friend.

He was witty and fond of jokes of rather a boisterous character. Suave but brusque, gracious but awkward, wonderfully gentle but in manners rough.

He had been brought up by his pious and noble mother in the fear of God, and in principles of virtue, far from the corrupting influence of the French court. He knew men not as courtiers, but in their own proper characters; and could endure much, because he had suffered much.

The worst part of his character was his gallantry, which no one can defend. It was wrong in itself, and was constantly leading him into silly adventures and domestic troubles.

ADMINISTRATION OF HENRI IV.

The kingdom greatly prospered under the vigilant attention of the Great Henri, so well seconded by the care and economy of Sully; and it is no small praise, that so great a king, could appreciate the services of a minister so severe and plain spoken, as the iron Calvinist of Rosny.

When the beautiful Gabrielle, one day, accused the minister of discourtesy, and pettishly demanded his discharge, the king replied, "Know, madame, I would sooner lose ten Gabrielles than one Sully." This was, indeed, a noble appreciation of a faithful servant, seeing how the king doted on his fair petitioner.

The first Bourbon entered upon his royal inheritance, when there was no army, no funds, no commerce, no industry, no respect from foreign courts. Marshes and forests covered large and valuable tracts of land, through which no roads passed. Pensions had accumulated to a frightful extent. An enormous debt had been contracted. And even Paris was so desolate, that grass and weeds grew in the principal thoroughfares.

In a few years, Sully placed the army upon a redoubtable footing, and created a most imposing *matériel* of war. He exposed the frauds of the tax-farmers; showed that not one-tenth of the revenue found its way into the public purse; suppressed the custom of sub-letting the taxes; and abolished a host of state offices.

He granted very few pensions, and those only for distinguished services; established order and the strictest economy in all branches of the administration; revised the funds; and abolished numerous imposts.

Agriculture engaged his especial care. He allowed the exportation of corn; and soon doubled the value of land, by causing the rate of interest to fall from 10 to 6 per cent.

Manufactures no less attracted his attention. He suppressed the vexatious impost of a penny in the pound upon all merchandise sold; established manufactures of glass, woollen tapestry, and silk brocaded with gold; introduced into the country a vast number of mulberry trees for the propagation of silkworms; and greatly encouraged the silk manufactures of Lyons.

¶ Having seen to these important affairs, the king and Sully next directed their attention to several subsidiary points: They caused bridges to be constructed; roads to be made and kept in good repair; the capital to be enlarged and embellished; marshes to be drained; and forests to be cleared.

The faubourg *St. Germain* was paved and joined to the city; the *Place Royale* was constructed; the *Pont Neuf* was thrown across the Seine [*Sain*]; and the beautiful façade of the *Hôtel de Ville* was erected.

Henri-le-Grand may be termed the real founder of the Royal Library. He increased and embellished the palaces of *St. Germain*, *Monceau* [*Mon-so*], *Fontainebleau*, and the *Louvre*; constructed the long gallery which joins the *Louvre* to the *Tuileries*, and gave here apartments to all kinds of artists.

The people soon began to feel the benefits of these wise measures. The taxes were lightened to the amount of four millions sterling; and all other imposts were reduced one-half. The king used to say, "If I live, there shall not be a peasant in my kingdom, who shall not be able to put a pullet in his pot every Sunday of the year." This was in truth the golden age of the French monarchy.

Maximilien de Béthune duc de Sully (1560—1641) was born at Rosny of an illustrious family, and was brought up in the Protestant faith, to which he always adhered. A wealthy marriage and well-ordered household rendered him extremely rich.

Besides Chancellor of the Exchequer, he was Governor of the Bastille, Grand-Master of the Ordnance, Surveyor of the Ports, Treasurer of the Household, Inspector of Public Buildings, Ranger of the Woods and Forests, Commissioner of the Rivers, Grand-Master of the Ports and Harbours, and Governor of Poitou.

His industry was untiring, and his method perfect. He rose at four; and, after giving the orders of the day, admitted all who wanted to see him to a private audience. Twice a day he took a walk in his garden, when a guard of honour preceded and followed him, carrying their halberds upright, and moving with martial strides. When he spoke to his children, they stood like statues before him, their eyes fixed on the ground. His château was massive and severe. His garden a collection of monster walks and magnificent terraces, with arcades, vases, images, urns, and fountains. The whole was ducal, and the master never for a moment threw aside his state.

After the assassination of Henri, Sully retired from public life, and resigned most of his offices. On one occasion, Louis XIII. sent for him, and he appeared at court in the same suit which he had worn in the reign of the Béarnais. This being old-fashioned, caused a titter among the courtiers: "Sire," said the iron duke, with all the dignity and coolness of a patrician, "when your great father condescended to consult me, he never allowed business to be interrupted by puppies and buffoons."

This truly great man has left behind him a work of high value, called the *Memoirs of Sully*, which has been translated into English.

MANNERS, CUSTOMS, ETC., IN THE REIGN OF HENRI IV.

(1) **Gardens.** In the reign of Henri IV., French gardens were still laid out in terraces, alleys, and rows, crowded with busts, statues, and urns. Trees were clipped into fantastic shapes, and the hedges kept trim and neat. Every flower-bed had its corresponding one, and every ornament its duplicate.

(2) **The Houses** were still ill-furnished. In the centre of the chief room stood a long table, and round it were stools, benches, and boxes. The heads of the house only were supplied with arm-chairs.

The walls were covered with tapestry, in all aristocratic mansions; the floors carpeted, at least in part; and bed-hangings were coming into use.

When the constable Montmorency laid in state, the walls of his chamber were hung with crimson velvet, bordered with pearls; the pillows were covered with gold tissue; and the quilt was cloth of gold edged with ermine.

The walls of many houses were wainscoted ; and it was fashionable to cover the panels with gilt leather. Stags' antlers were often fastened to the walls for the convenience of hanging on them caps, dog-couples, and bead-rolls. Bows and arrows, targets, swords, halberds, pikes, and cross-bows, formed other ornaments. The boxes used for seats contained armour packed in bran ; and under the benches was a good supply of straw for dogs to lie on.

(3) **Popular Literature.** Books had become pretty common, and had found their way into most gentlemen's houses. The most popular were the *Menippean Satire*, the *Romances about Charlemagne*, the *Romance of the Rose*, the poems of Ronsard, and the Bible.

The *Menippean Satire* was a political pamphlet, partly in prose, and partly in verse, the object of which was to unveil the perfidious intentions of Spain in regard to France, and the criminal ambition of the Guise family. The chief writers were Leroy, Pithou, and the poets Rapin and Passerat. Without doubt, it was a powerful instrument in securing the crown to the Béarnais.

It was called *Menippean* from *Menippus*, a cynic philosopher in the first century.

(4) **Forks** were introduced into France from Venice in this reign. Hitherto, people had used their fingers only. We are told that "Every person in Venice was supplied with a fork, knife, and spoon ; and it was deemed ill-mannered for any one to touch his meat with his fingers." This remark was made in the early part of the 17th century.

(5) **Coaches** were introduced in the reign of Henri II., but, for a long time, there were but three in all Paris, one belonging to Catherine de Médicis, another to Diane de Poitiers, and the third to a corpulent old nobleman too fat to mount on horseback.

By the close of the 16th century, they had become pretty general ; but gentlemen were still chary of using them, from a notion that they were unmanly and effeminate.

An astrologer predicted to Henri-le-Grand that he should *die in a coach* ; and though the king was by no means superstitious, he never entered his carriage without a certain degree of mistrust and aversion.

(6) **Carrousels** or mock tournaments, similar to the "Eglinton Tournaments," were introduced in the reign of the first Bourbon, and continued in vogue to the beginning of the 18th century. They were held in what is still called the *Place du Carrousel*.

(7) **Dress.** The expense of dress was something fearful, from the quantity of gold, silver, and jewels employed in decoration. Its *weight*, too, must have been extremely burthensome. It is said that Gabrielle d'Estrées [*Des-tray*] was unable to move, or even stand, when in full dress, from the enormous weight of her finery.

The marshal de Bassompierre informs us, in his *Memoirs*, that one of his coats, trimmed with pearls, cost him as much as £900 sterling.

The following is a description of a French gentleman's dress in the reign of Henri IV. A doublet of silver tissue ; white satin shoes, and white silk stockings ; a black cloak, bordered with rich embroidery, and lined with cloth of silver ; and a black velvet bonnet, studded with precious stones.

Ruffs were no longer worn, but were superseded by a monstrous standing collar, propped up by a wire frame, and inclosing the whole back of the head. This huge ugliness was technically called a *Médicis*, from Marie de Medicis, who introduced it.

Black silk or velvet masks were universally worn by ladies, when they went abroad, to preserve their complexions ; and even men wore them for concealment, when bent upon intrigue, or bound for the gambling-tables.

Beards were worn very large, and stiffened with wax to make them spread out as wide as possible. In the next reign, they were discontinued ; and a delicate moustache and little tuft upon the chin was the order of the day, in compliment to the king, who was a child.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF HENRI IV.

There were several literary celebrities in the reign of Henri IV. of surpassing eminence, such as Cujas the jurist, author of *Commentaries on the Civil Law*, once considered oracular; Hotman, author of *Franco-Gallia*, to prove that the law of succession in France is elective and not hereditary; Bodin, author of a treatise called *De Republicâ*, a standard work till it was superseded by Montesquieu's *Spirit of the Laws*.

Theodore Beza, universally known by his Latin translation of the *New Testament*, died a few years before Henri-le-Grand; and De Thou [Too], the historian, about six years after him. De Thou's *History of His Own Times* is one of the best ever written. He was himself an eye-witness and actor in many of the events recorded; and is extremely faithful, tolerant, and just. His judgment is excellent, his learning profound, and his penetration most acute.

Montaigne was born in the reign of the first François, but lived to the middle of the reign of the fourth Henri. His *Essays* impressed on the French language an energy it never before possessed, and are still highly appreciated, especially those on *Friendship*, *Parental Affection*, and *Schools*. They are full of anecdotes, classical allusions, stories of himself, witty sayings, and random reflections; and are written with all the raciness of strong good sense, and with wonderful energy, liveliness, and simplicity.

In the same reign, died Scaliger the younger, the "Father of Chronology;" Amyot, translator of *Plutarch's Lives*, universally admired for its elegant quaintness and simplicity, and considered one of the most valuable productions of the 16th century; Paré, the "Father of French Surgery," and author of a treatise on *Gun-Shot Wounds*; and Chicot the court jester.

Of poets we have Garnier [*Gar-ne-a*], the "Father of French Tragedy;" Regnier [*Rain-yè-a*], the "Father of French Satire;" Vauquelin, author of several beautiful *Idyls*, and of a didactic poem, called *The Art of Poetry*, in some respects superior to that of Boileau on the same subject; Du-Bartas, Malherbe, and Desportes [*Day-port*]; the last, the author of a poem, called *An Invitation to a Weary Traveller*, of unrivalled elegance.

Du Bartas (1544—1591) obtained immense celebrity, in the 16th century, for his epic poem in seven books, entitled *The Week of Creation*, which ran through 30 editions in seven years, and was translated into almost every European language.

This epic is especially worthy of note, inasmuch as Milton, in his "Paradise Lost," has borrowed largely from it. Though not devoid of imagination, it abounds in far-fetched thoughts, absurd metaphors, bombast, and bad taste, and is now wholly neglected.

Chicot (1553—1591), the son of a poor Gascon gentleman, was the jester of Henri III., who called him his *gossip*; he was allowed to sleep in the same room, and travel in the same litter with his royal patron. Chicot [*Che-ko*] was an excellent fencer, but his tongue was sharper than his sword.

He had a seat at the council-board of the Minion King; and there he enunciated profound political maxims, while his fingers were engaged in making paper boats. Often, on the most serious occasions, a sally from the favourite jester would throw the king and all his counsellors into convulsions of laughter, in the midst of which, the Fool would cry out with stentorian voice, "Silence, gentlemen! silence!" upon which the king would cease laughing, and resume business again.

So all-powerful was the gossip's influence, that he was nicknamed *King Henri's King*; and to his praise be it spoken, he loved his master and served him faithfully.

On the death of the Royal Minion, Chicot entered the service of the Bourbon, with whom he was as familiar as with his predecessor.

In person, Chicot was all nerves, muscles, and bone. His arms and legs were inordinately long; his black curling hair was not close-cropped or shorn, like that of jesters in general, but flowed over his shoulders. He was wonderfully active, ingenious in devices, frugal in habits, and brave.

He could construe Latin and Hebrew; quote Marco Polo, Galen, and the Breviary; had considerable scientific knowledge; laughed silently, like an Indian; and owed his influence, as much to the fear he inspired, as to his mirth and singular ability.

At the siege of Rouen [*Roo-on'g*], he made Henri of Lorraine prisoner; and the count, indignant at being so captured, smote the Fool with the hilt of his sword upon the head, and killed him.

HISTORY OF FRENCH POETRY. (Continued from page 50.)

PART II. TRANSITION PERIOD.

The 15th and 16th centuries are regarded by the French as the transition period of their poetry, when it passed from infancy to manhood; and the three leading names are Marot, Ronsard, and Malherbe.

Marot (1495—1544). Clement Marot is the creator of that school of naïve poetry, which was afterwards carried to perfection by La Fontaine and Voltaire. With a playful unambitious grace, he gives a happy turn to every subject, and delights to put the world in good humour with itself. The naïveté of Marot is independent of his language and even of his ideas, it seems to be an emanation of his nature inseparable from all he says.

Ronsard (1524—1585), during his lifetime, was elevated to almost divine honours; but is now scarcely known by name, and of those who know thus much, very few have read a single line of his poetry.

He was the presiding genius of those seven poets who arrogated to themselves the title of the "French Pleiad" [*Ply-ad*], whose great object was to transplant into French the form, manner, and verbiage of the ancient Greek and Latin lyrics, but who succeeded only in making a ridiculous jumble of Italian subtlety of thought, expressed in wretched French, patched with Greek and Latin idioms, and tortured into unnatural metres.

Ronsard, without doubt, was the best of the seven, and his reputation spread over all Europe. Queen Elizabeth and her court delighted, quite as much as the French themselves, in his sonnets, madrigals, and odes; and Mary of Scotland sent him a silver *beaufét*, on which was chased the mountain of the Muses.

Malherbe (1558—1628) was also a classicist, like Ronsard, but with this great difference. Ronsard seized the form, but Malherbe the *spirit* of the ancients. The poetry of the Pleiads [*Ply-ads*], like the paintings of David, were Roman characters modelled like Frenchmen, and Frenchmen gesticulating and attitudinizing, like Greeks and Romans; about as natural as the frog trying to look like an ox. Not so with Malherbe; he was inspired with the true classic taste and genius, but his versification is thoroughly French, with no admixture of pedantry.

His three best pieces are his *Ode to Henri IV.* on the taking of Sedan; *Ode to the Queen-Mother*; and the beautiful verses addressed to the councillor Duprier, on the sudden death of his daughter.

Gradations of French Poetry.

- (1) The Troubadours and Trouvères.
- (2) The *Allegorical* School, of which the "Romance of the Rose" is the most celebrated.
- (3) The *Transition*, founded by Marot, who abolished allegorical characters, and introduced the classic mythology.

(4) The *Classical*, introduced by Ronsard.

(5) The *Modern*, founded by Malherbe.

Malherbe's Canons. (1) *He abolished all newly-invented Greek or Latin words; all provincial expressions, and all foreign idioms; and restricted poetry to such words and phrases as a well-educated Parisian would make use of.*

(2) *He would not allow a word ending with a vowel to be followed by another beginning with a vowel.*

(3) *He wholly forbade the running of one line into another.*

(4) *He insisted on the cæsura being distinctly marked; and made certain rules about rhymes, still most rigidly observed (see p. 239).*

LOUIS XIII. LE JUSTE.

(So called because he was born under the Zodiacal sign of "Libra" (the Balance).)

REIGNED 33 YEARS. FROM 1610 TO 1643. Contemporary with James I. and Charles I.

Kingdom. Roussillon again added to the crown by conquest. Sedan also added to the crown.

Married. Anne of Austria, infanta of Spain.

Issue. Louis who succeeded him (not born till 23 years after the marriage); and Philippe duc d'Anjou, who espoused Henrietta daughter of Charles I. Philippe took the title of duc d'Orléans on the day of his marriage, and was entitled *Monsieur* when his brother was king.

Residences. The Palais-de-Luxembourg, Chantilly, &c.

Louis XIII. was only nine years old when his father died, and the regency was seized upon by his mother Marie de Médicis [*Med'-e-ce*], a woman of considerable talent and unbounded ambition. Her power, however, was only nominal, as she was wholly under the influence of Concini and his wife, two Italian adventurers from Florence, who came over in her suite (*sweet*).

The first seven years of this reign present us with very few incidents of historical importance; and may be briefly included in a sketch of the rise and fall of the Florentine favourite.

SECTION I. FRANCE UNDER CONCINI (FROM 1610 TO 1617).

Concini was born at Florence, where his father was a notary; and followed Marie de Médicis to France, when she left Italy to become the bride of Henri IV.

By the aid of his wife, Leonōra de'Galigai, the queen's favourite waiting-maid, he was appointed groom-of-the-stole in the king's household; and soon after the death of his royal master, purchased the marquisate of Ancre (*Arnk'r*) near Amiens, and assumed the title of Marquis d'Ancre, from which moment his advancement was rapid.

Within three years, he was created governor of Amiens and of Normandy, marshal of France though he had never borne arms, and chief minister. He acquired a princely fortune, and became the one and only power of the realm.

Marshal d'Ancre (*Darnk'r*) was of a jovial turn of mind, lavish, and rapacious. The French nobles fawned upon him for what they could get; and he bestowed his favours so profusely, that he soon wasted the immense treasures left behind by the late king.

His increasing honours, monopoly of power, and unbounded extravagance, could not fail to excite the jealousy and indignation of the ancient aristocracy. The king himself complained of his intolerable insolence; and a plot, ere long, was laid for his overthrow.

The prince de Condé was at the head. The queen mother was alarmed, and advised the most energetic measures; but Concini preferred temporizing, and soothed the principal malcontents with bribes, pensions, and dignities.

A States-General Convened (1614). The queen-regent now convened a States-General, for the king was 14 years old, at which age, according to the French law, he attained his majority.

In this assembly, were 140 ecclesiastics, 132 nobles, and 182 commoners called the third-estate (*tiers-état*). Nothing, however, was done, as the three orders could not agree, each being desirous to redress some grievance weighing on their own particular class.

Thus, the clergy insisted, that the decrees of the Council of Trent should be enforced in France. The nobles, that hereditary offices should be abolished, and that all offices of the crown should be personal and elective. While the commons pressed for the reduction and gradual suppression of pensions and sinecures.

As no line of conduct could be agreed upon, the States separated without effecting anything, and were never again convened till the great Revolution (1789).

It was in this assembly, that Richelieu first appeared upon the scene. Though only 29 years of age, he was bishop of Luçon [*Lu-sôn'g*], and the chief orator of the ecclesiastical estate.

Marriage of Louis XIII. (1615). The queen-mother and her favourites, finding themselves unpopular, sought to strengthen their hands by Spanish alliances; and, with this view, projected two marriages, one between the king and the infanta, and another between Elisabeth the king's sister and Philipp, afterwards Philipp IV. of Germany and Spain.

These projects were extremely distasteful to the nation, and more especially to the reformed party, which strongly remonstrated against them. The prince de Condé represented to the queen-mother that Spain was a natural enemy of France; had heaped wrongs on wrongs upon her; and ought to be humbled rather than exalted.

As these remonstrances were wholly ineffectual, Condé and his party had recourse to arms, to wrest from the young king such conditions as they thought essential to the well-being of the state.

Both the marriages were consummated by proxy on the same day (the 18th of October); and in November, the king went to Bordeaux to escort his bride home. He was attended by his court; and the army of malcontents was drawn up to meet him.

It was now thought advisable to conciliate the prince, and Marie de Médicis (*Med'-e-ce*) negotiated at Loudun, in Poitiers, the terms of reconciliation. By this treaty, Condé and his army were acquitted of treason; large sums of money were given for indemnity; and the king was forbidden to confer office or dignity upon any foreigner.

The marriage, thus inauspiciously performed, was by no means a happy one. The king and queen lived almost always apart; the former jealous and suspicious; the latter grieving at her husband's neglect, and persecuted because her relatives were Spaniards.

Condé sent to the Bastille (1616). After the treaty of Loudun, the old ministers were dismissed, and the prince de Condé became all-powerful. The queen-mother and Concini were obliged to succumb to him; and measures were prepared to remove both of them from all further share or influence in the government.

There is no doubt that Condé was plotting to dethrone the king, with the view of usurping the crown himself.

Richelieu, one of the new council, far-sighted enough to see how the prince's treason might be turned to his own advantage, advised the queen-mother to arrest him, and he was sent to the Bastille.

His party now retired to Soissons (*Swois-sôn'g*), to organize themselves for war, and Marie de Médicis set on foot three armies to resist them.

As for Concini, he became more powerful than ever; his pride knew no bounds; his wealth maintained a private army of 6000 men; and the king openly declared, that the despotism of his minister was quite intolerable.

Concini Assassinated (1617). Had Louis-the-Just been a man of energy and independent spirit, he would have dismissed his obnoxious servant at once; but he was afraid to encounter the opposition of his mother; and, like all cowards, adopted a crooked policy.

His most intimate companion was Charles-Albert de Luynes (*del-ween'*), a young man who won the royal favour, by his skill in laying sparrow-traps, and his knowledge of falconry.

The favourite advised his master to assert his independence; and persuaded him, that Concini was the cause of all the discontent and disturbances of the nation. Louis was not difficult to persuade. He hated the domineering Italian, and heartily wished him dead; so he gave secret orders to his captain of the guards to arrest him, and cut him down if he resisted.

Next day, as the marshal was going to the Louvre, the captain of the guards commanded him to deliver up his sword in the king's name, and, as he hesitated to do so, shot him dead upon the spot. "Now am I king indeed!" cried Louis, when the news was brought him; and all Paris was mad with joy.

So greatly was the minister hated, that the mob seized upon his dead body, tore it into piece-meal, and gibbeted each separate limb.

Leonora de Galigai Executed (1617). Not content with mutilating and insulting the lifeless body of the murdered minister, the crowd broke into his private dwelling, seized his wife, dragged her before the Paris *parlement*, and accused her of sorcery.

It must be remembered, that witchcraft and sorcery, astrology and magic, were believed in at that time even by men of birth and education, and to have hinted a doubt of these "black arts" would have been to offend against the church, and show complicity in the guilt.

When the learned judges asked their prisoner, by what magic she had bewitched the queen, she replied, "By the magic of a strong mind acting on a weaker one." She was unanimously condemned; and her sentence, was to be first beheaded, and then consumed by fire.

Her house was levelled to the ground; all the immense property of the late marshal was confiscated; and his descendants were interdicted for ever from holding rank or office in the state.

SECTION II. FRANCE UNDER ALBERT DE LUYNES (1617-1621).

Charles-Albert duc de Luynes (*del-veen'*), was presented by the king with all the confiscated wealth of Concini, and was promoted to his vacant office. He was a man equally ambitious, grasping, and unprincipled, as his predecessor, and exercised unlimited influence over the young monarch, but was wholly incompetent to guide the state through its present difficulties.

His first measure was to procure the banishment of the queen-mother, who was sent to Blois (*Blwor*), where she was strictly guarded, but was allowed to hold her court and receive any one she pleased.

Richelieu requested to be allowed to follow her into exile as her friend and adviser, a request which was readily granted.

Flight of Marie de Medicis (1619). Condé, from his prison at Vincennes to which he had been removed, and Marie de Médicis, from her château at Blois (*Blwor*), carried on incessant intrigues, and kept the duc de Luynes (*del-veen'*) in endless trouble.

At length the duc d'Epéron, with 15 coadjutors, undertook to deliver the queen-mother from her bondage. Under the conduct of these gentlemen she effected her escape, and took refuge in Angoulême, where the duke was governor.

A civil war seemed now inevitable. The minister advised that the fugitive should be brought back by an armed force; but the King preferred temporizing, and entered into negotiations with his mother.

She resisted all advances, till Richelieu interfered, and, through the medium of her confessor, won her over to his purpose.

By this manœuvre, the friend of the mother became the confidant of the son also, and saw himself placed at once on the high-road to political eminence.

Combat at the Pont de Ce (1620). The queen-dowager now received the government of Anjou (*Arn-zjoo*) and held her court at Angers (*Arn-zjay*), the capital of that province. At the same time, prince de Condé was liberated by the duc de Luynes (*del-ween*), to act as a check upon the queen.

The court of Angers became the rallying point of all the disaffected; and, ere long, this band of rebels took up arms, to enforce the dismissal of the obnoxious minister.

The king, with the prince de Condé, marched against the insurgents, encountered them at the Pont de Cé, in Anjou, and put them to immediate flight.

Peace was again concluded, through the intervention of Richelieu; and that rising ecclesiastic was rewarded for his services with a cardinal's hat.

Death of Albert de Luynes (1621). All Europe was, at this epoch, agitated by the famous 30 years war, between the Protestants and Catholics of Germany.

Louis and his court were Catholics; and the Protestants of France, uneasy at the strong bias of the government, resolved to form themselves into an independent republic. For this purpose, they divided their 700 churches into eight circles, and drew up a "Constitution," which, amongst other things, regulated the mode of levying taxes, and the enrolment of soldiers.

This was evidently entrenching on the prerogatives of the crown; and Louis sent the duc de Luynes [*Del-ween*], as Constable of France, to lay siege to Montauban, the place (next to Rochelle) the most important of all the protestant cities of the nation.

The expedition proved a complete failure, and a cry of indignation was raised on all sides against the Lord Constable, to whom the misadventure was attributed. At this crisis of affairs, he was taken ill of a fever, which carried him off in four days, otherwise he would probably have shared the fate of his unhappy predecessor.

Peace was now made with the Reformers; the edict of Nantes confirmed; and Richelieu became the ruling spirit of the day.

SECT. III. FRANCE UNDER CARDINAL DE RICHELIEU (1624—1643).

Richelieu (1585—1653). Armand-Jean du Plessis, cardinal duc de Richelieu, was born in Paris. His father was captain of the guards.

Armand was originally designed for the military profession, but entered into holy orders. He was consecrated bishop of Luçon at the age of 22; succeeded the duc de Luynes [*Del-ween*] at the age of 38; and remained 18 years at the head of affairs.

His administration was so firm, active, and politic, that the French monarchy owed to it both its independence and its greatness. As for the king, he was a mere cipher in the kingdom, and the prestige of his royal title was wholly eclipsed by the genius of his minister. The Cardinal's court was infinitely more imposing than that of the sovereign; and he had his body-guard of musketeers as well as his nominal master.

When first introduced into public life, Richelieu was so mild, so conciliating and courteous, that it would have been difficult to trace, in the urbane and polished bishop, any indication of the aspiring and remorseless cardinal.

As first minister of the crown, he set himself three tasks: To reduce the protestants, who were striving to form themselves into a separate state; to bring to submission the turbulent nobles; and to abase the house of Austria, which was aiming at universal empire.

The main obstacles he had to encounter were the protestants and their English allies, the queen with her Spanish friends, and the king with his intriguing favourites.

§ 1. RICHELIEU'S FIRST PROJECT. THE REDUCTION OF THE PROTESTANTS.

That the protestants might be unmolested, Henri IV. had consigned to them several important towns in various parts of his dominions. Here they were allowed the free exercise of their religion, were governed by their own magistrates, and made their own bye-laws, like the old feudatories of France.

The governor of each one of these cities was a Huguenot noble, who acknowledged the royal title of the sovereign, but was nevertheless virtually independent in his own territory.

The creation of these cities was a great political error, as a "kingdom divided against itself cannot stand." It was in these places, that Spanish, German, Italian, English, and native malcontents, congregated; that adventurers and soldiers of fortune flocked together; that invading armies landed; and German reiters and freebooters issued forth to plunder travellers, and lay waste the surrounding country.

By far the most important of these protestant cities was la-Rochelle, a sea-port in the Bay of Biscay.

Richelieu felt assured that France would never be secure from invasion, while a port so accessible to the English and Spanish was open to their armies; nor free from civil wars, while such a nest for

malcontents was suffered to exist. He determined, therefore, to wrest the city from the protestants, demolish its fortifications, and disperse its inhabitants; a proceeding, without doubt, politically right, whether morally justifiable or not is another matter.

The siege of Rochelle forms one of the most important events of the reign, and was the cardinal's great military exploit. Of course, he had some pretence for his aggression, though his real motive was not made public.

The ostensible reason was, that the Huguenots had plotted against him with the duchess of Chevreuse. The correspondence of the duchess being seized, her plans were frustrated, and she escaped to England; but the protestants drew upon themselves the whole force of the cardinal's displeasure.

Siege of Rochelle (1627—1628). As soon as the Reformers knew the intention of the cardinal duke, they applied to England for succours; and Charles I. sent over the duke of Buckingham with an armament of 100 sail.

This formidable fleet appeared before Rochelle on the 20th of July, but the mayor, either because he was corrupted, or because he was unwilling to come to extremities, refused to admit it into the harbour. Upon this, the duke sailed to the Isle of Ré in front of the port, surprised the governor, and effected a landing.

As soon as Richelieu was informed of this success, he despatched the duke of Orléans, the king's brother, to conduct operations, till he himself could complete his arrangements.

At this juncture, the king fell ill of a fever, and was unable to move till the middle of September. Had Buckingham availed himself of this interval, his success would have been certain; but he frittered away his opportunity, till he was ignominiously driven out of the island, and then he returned home, having lost two-thirds of his army and accomplished nothing.

The French fleet now sailed to la-Rochelle, and lay there till Richelieu and the king arrived, when the city was blockaded by sea and land; and, to prevent the access of fresh succours from England, the entrance of the port was blocked up by various floating works.

These works were from time to time destroyed by the violence of the waves; whereupon, the cardinal proceeded to construct a solid mole across the mouth of the harbour.

This work was scarcely completed, when another fleet from England appeared in sight. It made a feeble attempt to destroy the mole, but, not succeeding, returned to Portsmouth again.

The Rochellers were now reduced to the utmost straits by famine. They had sustained the siege for 15 months; and, as they could hold out no longer, were obliged to surrender at discretion.

Some idea may be formed of the miseries they suffered from the single fact, that, of the 15,000 persons who were in the city when the siege began, not 4000 survived to its close.

The fortifications were demolished; the privileges granted by Henri the Great rescinded, the protestants of France ceased to have a separate government, rebels a focus of safety, and invaders a landing-place for their hostile armies.

All honour to the cardinal for this enterprise. It was both planned and executed with great talent. A mighty evil was removed from the land, and the hands of government were considerably strengthened.

Buckingham was appointed over the second fleet, but was assassinated by Felton at the moment he was about to embark.

§ 2. RICHELIEU'S SECOND PROJECT. THE HUMILIATION OF AUSTRIA.

The house of Austria, at this period, was ruling over Germany, Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, a large part of what is now termed France, and almost all Italy. All these dominions and many others had belonged to Charles-quint, and, on his abdication, were divided between his brother and son.

His brother Ferdinand succeeded to Germany and Austria, and his son Philipp to Spain and Portugal, Flanders, Franche-Comté, and Alsace, a large part of Italy, and the New World.

The House, therefore, especially the Spanish branch thereof, was looked upon by the French with extreme jealousy. It intrenched upon what they considered their own territory; had great facilities of annoying them, and was perpetually carrying on a border war.

What rendered the matter worse was, that Charles-quint had been the personal enemy of François I., the knight-king; and an hereditary hatred had been transmitted to the descendants of both sovereigns.

War with the House of Austria (1635—1648). It so happened, that a sort of "religious war" had been carried on in Germany ever since the year 1618. This war had been brought about by the emperor's taking from the protestants of Bohemia their privileges; in consequence of which, they flew to arms, and commenced the *Thirty-Years' War*.

France had hitherto taken no part in this contest; but now Richelieu, strange to say, threw in his lot with the protestants, not from any feeling of sympathy with them, but simply and solely to oppose the emperor of Germany and the king of Spain.

In order, however, to limit hostilities as much as possible to the house of Austria, he concluded an alliance with Holland, Sweden, Switzerland, and Savoy. As for England, she was far too much occupied with the great revolution, which brought Charles I. to the scaffold, to take any interest in foreign matters.

Having declared war with the emperor of Germany and king of Spain, Richelieu raised four large armies, one of which he sent into Flanders, another into Milan, a third to the Valtellina, and the fourth to the Rhine. These armies were kept on foot till the death of the cardinal, and even for five years after that event, when peace was concluded between the belligerents in the famous treaty of Westphalia.

During the life-time of Richelieu, the French gained very little glory and no solid advantage from this interference; for though they won two or three battles, they suffered numerous defeats.

In 1640, however, occurred two events which contributed to weaken Spain far more than all the efforts of the cardinal duke—the revolt of Catalõnia and Portugal. The former, oppressed by the Spanish minister, broke into insurrection, and gave herself to France; the latter, about the same time, threw off the Spanish yoke, and declared herself independent.

Under the protection of Catalõnia, Richelieu and the king drove the Spaniards out of Roussillon, and added that province to the French crown.

In the next reign, Spain was compelled to resign Flanders, Franche-Comté, and Alsace [*Al-sarce*], whereby the kingdom of France was extended to the foot of the Jura and the river Rhine.

§ 3. RICHELIEU'S STRUGGLES WITH THE NOBLES.

When Richelieu succeeded the duc de Luynes [*Del-ween*] as first minister of France, he found the country torn by contending factions, both political and religious: If the protestants wanted to strengthen their hands against the royalists, they called to their aid the disaffected nobles; and if the nobles wanted to avenge some private wrong, they availed themselves of the Huguenot soldiers.

Richelieu overcame a part of this evil by abolishing the separate state of the protestants; but much more was accomplished by compelling the nobility to leave their country mansions to reside with the court; by this artifice he separated them from their tenantry, gave them an interest in royalty, and kept them easily under his eye.

These vigorous measures raised him up a host of enemies, and plot after plot was set on foot for his disgrace or assassination, but all of them proved abortive.

(1) **First plot of the duc d'Orleans (1626).** The first plot was set on foot by Gaston duke of Orleans, the king's brother; and was under the immediate sanction of the queen-mother and the queen. Marshal Ornãno, the counts of Châlais and Soissons, the duc de Vendôme, the ambassador of Savoy, and even the duke of Buckingham, took part therein.

Their aim was to ruin or assassinate the obnoxious minister, depose the king, and confer the crown upon the duke his brother.

The plot was discovered, and the conspirators were punished with relentless severity: The comte de Châlais [*Shal-lay*] was beheaded, and the marshal Ornano, comte de Soissons, and duc de Vendôme were imprisoned for life. The duke of Orleans was too near the throne to be capitally punished, so he was allowed to go free; and lived to join nine other conspiracies, in which he sacrificed the lives of his friends one after another, and became the bye-word and shame of history.

The failure of this plot greatly increased the power of the cardinal; and, probably, some of the persons accused were made away with, not because they were guilty, but because they were personally obnoxious to the vindictive churchman.

A body-guard of 40 musketeers was now given to the minister, precisely like that which attended on the king. And it was not unusual for his eminence and the king to dispute, over their evening game of chess, upon the merits of their respective guardsmen, between whom were ceaseless skirmishes.

(2) Plot of Marie de Medicis (1630, 1631). The queen-mother, indignant at Richelieu for his hostility to Italy, importuned her son with many tears to dismiss him.

The king, unable to resist his mother, commanded the cardinal to resign his portfolio. The Italian was triumphant; her friends were loud in their congratulations; and all thought her influence was fully re-established.

Next day, the duke waited on the king, to place in his hands the seals of office; Louis relented; refused to accept his resignation; and Richelieu became more powerful than ever. This day is called in history *The Day of the Dupes*.

The duc d'Orléans, raving with passion, hastened to the palace of the minister with a crowd of gentlemen, behaved in a most insulting manner, and even threatened his life. Richelieu heard him to the end; bowed him out with cynical politeness; laid the matter before the king in council; and insisted, that the realm would never be at peace, while Marie de Medicis was allowed to hold a separate court, and give her sanction to the disaffected.

The remonstrance prevailed, and the queen-mother was conveyed as a state-prisoner to the Castle of Compiègne [*Cone-pe-enn*]; but she eluded the vigilance of her keepers, left the kingdom, and lived the rest of her life a fugitive and exile.

All her partisans were either disgraced, banished, imprisoned, or put to death; and even the duke Gaston, compelled to quit France, joined his mother in Brussels.

Marillac Punished (1632). Among the partisans of the exiled queen were two noblemen marked out especially for vengeance by the cardinal. These were Michel and Louis de Marillac. The former had filled with credit many high state offices, such as master of the court of requests, councillor of state, chancellor of the exchequer, and lord privy seal.

When the plot of Marie was broken up, Michel was disgraced, thrown into prison, fell ill, and died; but his brother Louis, a marshal of France, was arrested at the head of his own army, and condemned to death.

(3) **Second Plot of the duc d'Orleans (1632).** Scarcely had the duke of Orleans arrived at Brussels when he organized another plot against the cardinal, and induced Henri of Montmorency to join it. This young nobleman was a grandson of the famous Anne de Montmorency, 40 years constable of France, and one of the Triumvirate.

He had been created admiral, at the age of 17, by the reigning monarch; and so highly distinguished himself in several engagements, that he received the command of an army, and was afterwards promoted to the rank of marshal.

Discontented with Richelieu, and jealous of his inordinate power, Henri de Montmorency raised a revolt in Languedoc. The cardinal sent the royal troops to suppress this rising; a battle was fought; the revolted were defeated; and Montmorency, covered with wounds, was taken prisoner, tried for treason and beheaded. In this young man, expired the last direct descendant of the noble house of Montmorency.

(4) **Comte de Soissons' Plot (1641).** Louis de Bourbon comte de Soissons [*Swois-sôn'g*] grandson of Louis prince de Condé, the great protestant leader, was the next to conspire against his Eminence. The count had already been proscribed for revolt, and had taken refuge at Sedan, the principality of the duc de Bouillon [*Boo-e-yôn*]. Here he entered into a plot with Spain; assembled troops; and assumed a defiant position.

Richelieu sent an army against him. A battle was fought at Marfée, near Sedan; the prince was shot; his army dispersed; and the cardinal was again triumphant.

Conspiracy of Cinq-Mars (1642). The king had long been weary of the domineering spirit of his minister, and longed to throw off his yoke, but knew not how.

Attached to his court was a young nobleman of fine independent spirit, generous disposition, winning manners, and ingenuous mind, Cinq-Mars by name. He had been introduced to the king by Richelieu himself, at the age of 19, and was master of the horse.

This young marquis was a grand favourite with the king, and sincerely returned his affection. He was passionately fond of the same pursuits, such as hunting and bird catching, and was the only person that Louis really loved.

Cinq-Mars saw with deep regret how his royal master was trampled on by the proud churchman. He had heard the king many and many a time complain of his indignities; and was induced by the marquis de Fontrailles [*Fôn-trý-e*] to put himself at the head of a party called "Royalists," in opposition to the adherents of Richelieu, who went by the name of "Cardinalists."

The views of the "Royalists" were openly mooted, and it was universally understood that the king's favourite was to succeed his Eminence. The party was joined by Gaston the king's brother, Bouillon [*Boo-e-yôn*] prince of Sedan, and was secretly favoured even by the king himself.

Richelieu was ill at the time at Tarascôn, so that he was unable to exercise his wonted vigilance, and a regular conspiracy was formed to cut him off by assassination. The high-minded favourite soothed his conscience by calling his sin *patriotism*. He was about to strike an overgrown despot, to liberate his country and his king, and to save the lives of hundreds from a political Moloch.

Such was the plot, and such were the excuses pleaded by its leader, whatever might have been the secret malice of Gaston, the "weak duke," and the indirect hopes of the marquis of Fontrailles [*Fôn-trý-e*], and others. All things moved on smoothly, and promised certain success; but, as all the soldiers were under the command of Richelieu, all the provinces were governed by his creatures, all the high offices of state were held by his friends, and every ramification of the realm was filled by his spies, it was deemed advisable to call in foreign aid.

Accordingly, Spain was applied to, and the conspirators entered into a treasonable compact with that nation. This part of the plot was wholly unknown to the king, and it was this that caused its miscarriage.

The treaty with Spain was sent by a courier, who was stopped by one of the cardinal's spies; and the fatal document placed in the sick man's hands.

Richelieu immediately sent intelligence to the king, and demanded the arrest of the duc d'Orléans, Cinq-Mars the royal favourite, Bouillon [*Boo-e-yôn*] prince of Sedan, the marquis of Fontrailles [*Fôn-trý-e*], De Thou [*Too*], and many others of inferior note.

The king durst not withhold his signature; and the conspirators being arrested, and brought to trial at Lyons, were condemned for high treason. Cinq-Mars was beheaded; Fontrailles [*Fôn-trý-e*]

made his escape to England; De Thou [*Too*], son of the famous historian, was put to death for being privy to the plot; the duc de Bouillon [*Boo-e-yón*] was deprived of his principality of Sedan, which was made forfeit to the crown; but the infamous duke Gaston turned king's evidence, and was pardoned.

Thus ended, a few weeks previous to the death of Richelieu, the last of the many plots which had been formed against him.

Six noblemen* had been cut off by the axe, but the rest had been undermined by subtlety. In order to diminish their influence and keep them in sight, the wily politician forced them to reside with the court, breaking thus their communion with their vassals, and giving them an interest in royalty and state-craft.

Death of Richelieu (1642). Richelieu now returned to Paris. He travelled in a kind of palanquin, borne on the shoulders of his musketeers, who went bareheaded.

When he came to any walled town, and found the gates too narrow to admit his litter, a part of the wall was thrown down. It was thus he traversed France in triumph from Lyons to Paris. More like a sultan or eastern despot, than a churchman and simple minister; but he reached his palace, merely to go to bed and die.

He had baffled all his enemies, humiliated the house of Austria, raised France to the highest rank among the nations of Europe, and was gathered to his fathers an old man, at the age of 58. His last care was to recommend for his successor the cardinal Mazärin, who was accordingly appointed first minister, and entered immediately upon his high duties.

Death of Marie de Medicis (1642). Five months before the death of Richelieu, died Marie de Médicis [*Med'-e-ve*], widow of the great Henri, and mother of the reigning king. She had been three years in England, an exile, on a visit to her daughter Henrietta, the wife of Charles I.

In this visit, she was very meanly accompanied; but her royal son-in-law received her most graciously. It was proverbially said, that wherever she went she brought in her train famine, plague, or war.

William Lilly says, "She was a sad spectacle of mortality, which produced tears from many who beheld her. She was lean, decrepit, and very feeble; had no place she could call her home; and yet was she the relic of the greatest king that ever lived in France, the mother of the reigning sovereign, and of two daughters who were queens."

One daughter was queen of England and the other of Spain; but both Charles I. and Felipe IV. were equally unfortunate.

Death of Louis XIII. (1643). As Marie the mother died five months before the Cardinal, Louis the son died five months

* They were Marillac, Thou, Cinq-Mars, Chälais, Bouteville, and Montmorency.

after him. He was at the time 42 years old, and had reigned 33 years.

Louis-the-Just is very differently represented by historians. Some speak of him as weak, bigoted, and treacherous; others as brave, generous, and discreet. Neither of these extreme views is correct. No doubt, he was impulsively good, but his goodness was uncertain and fickle. He showed at times generosity and courage, but they were the offspring of feeling rather than of principle. Much of his irresolution may be ascribed to his feeble health, and physical debility.

St. Simon unhesitatingly affirms, that the glory given to Richelieu ought to have been awarded to Louis, and boldly ascribes to the king the suggestion of the famous mole of the Rochelle harbour. This may be the case, but if St. Simon is correct, one thing is certain, that the noble qualities of the royal cypher were so incrustated with baser ones, or so rusted and mildewed for want of use, that "they were all the same as if he had them not."

It is patent to the world, that Louis XIII. was a mere tool in the hand of his ministers; not of Richelieu only, but of Concini, and de Luynes [*Del-ween*]. His was the weaker mind in every case; and the Italian, the playmate, and the churchman, with equal ease, "swayed him to the mode of what they liked or loathed."

So completely was he enthralled at last, that he gave up even the show of royalty, and lived at Chantilly [*Sharn-tee-ye*], where he passed his time in hunting, fowling, and falconry. He hated reading; was very ill educated; and had an impediment in his speech; but was pretty skilful in music, painting, and riding. Like Louis VIII. he had the misfortune of standing between two of the greatest monarchs of France, Henri-quatre his father, and Louis-quatorze his son.

He was rather above the middle height, and of a spare habit of body. His complexion was very pale; his hair of a chestnut colour; his features handsome; and his eyes a dark brown.

He was fiery in temper and very impatient, but sadly wanted energy of mind and pertinacity of purpose. A settled melancholy overshadowed his face, and he seemed to take no interest in any thing; yet, at times, there flashed forth gleams of his mother's spirit, or of his father's generous nature.

He generally wore a plain suit of black silk, with sugar-loaf buttons of black jet; his hat was looped up with a small string of jewels, and the feather which fell greatly on one side was buttoned with a diamond.

¶ His wife, generally called Anne of Austria, was not strictly handsome, but had a pleasing expression. Her light-brown hair was powdered, and fell in a profusion of large curls round her face. Her eyes were quick and lustrous; her skin delicately fair, but

disfigured with rouge and paint; her mouth extremely small; her upper lip arched, and her lower one slightly protruding beyond the other, a characteristic of the Austrian house. Her hands and feet were incomparable; her carriage queenly; and her disposition amiable.

Her great favourite was Madame de Chevreuse; and it is said, that this lady and the queen gave the cardinal more trouble and uneasiness, than the war with Spain, the quarrel with the English, and the financial embarrassment of the state.

Madame de Chevreuse aided her royal friend in all her political intrigues, and delighted to lead her into others which have cast a shade over her conjugal fidelity.

Anne of Austria survived her husband 23 years, and became the regent of her son Louis XIV., who at the age of 5, inherited the crown.

CIVIL POLICY OF RICHELIEU.

Richelieu rendered France no less prosperous than great. He favoured commerce, encouraged navigation, repaired the ports, protected letters and patronized the fine arts.

He began the harbour of Brest; rebuilt the Sorbonne; erected the Palais-Royal [*Pallay Rwoy-al*]; and founded the famous Jardin-des-Plantes [*Zjar-dah'n day Plarnt*].

He instituted the Académie Française; established, at Paris, the Royal Printing Office; founded the Collège du Plessis [*Ples-se*]; and authorized Renaudot to publish a Gazette,* the first journal ever circulated in France.

He gave a pension to the illustrious philosopher Descartes [*Day-cart'*]; recalled Nicolas Poussin [*Poos-sah'n*] from Rome; and admitted writers of celebrity to an intimacy highly honourable to his good taste.

The only meanness he was guilty of, was a jealousy of the great Corneille [*Cor-nay-e*]. This arose from a mistaken notion that he was himself a dramatist, and an inward conviction that Corneille was his superior.

* The *Mercur*, a periodical containing a register of public events, acts of government, and historical notices, gave birth to the *Gazette* in 1637.

ROYAL STATE OF RICHELIEU.

Richelieu lived in the Palais-Royal [*Pallay Rwoy-al*] then termed the Palais-Cardinal, a very different building to what it now is.

Now it is a vast square of shops, eating-houses, and coffee-rooms; but then it was wholly appropriated to the use of the great minister.

All that was elegant, luxurious, and magnificent, all that wealth could purchase or art devise, was here gathered together. For seven years, the famous Le Mercier [*Mair-se-a*] laboured to perfect it as a building; and the cardinal, during his whole administration, never ceased adding to its decorations.

The entire space was divided into an outer and an inner court, round which, on every side, ranged the superb buildings of the palace, presenting every way an external and internal front.

The gardens, extending over several acres, were the wonder of Paris. They were filled with every plant and flower that Europe possessed, scattered amongst the trees in natural groups.

The right wing of the first court was occupied by that beautiful theatre, so intimately connected with every classic association of the French stage. Here the tragedies of Rotrou [*Ro-troo*] and Corneille [*Cor-nay-e*] were produced; and here the inimitable comedies of Molière were given to the world.

In the left wing, was the chapel, built in the Ionic order.

The two courts were divided from each other by a massive pile of buildings containing the grand saloon, the audience chamber, and the cabinet of the high council. On the ground-floor, was the banqueting-room and its ante-chamber.

A great part of the edifice fronting the gardens, was occupied by the famous gallery of portraits, comprising the likenesses of all the chief characters in French history.

The rest of the palace was filled with various suites of apartments furnished in the most sumptuous manner, and used either for public entertainments, or for the Cardinal's private uses.

In this enormous palace the duc de Richelieu held his court, with a magnificence and style strangely at variance with the melancholy desolation of the royal palaces. Here would be gathered together, on grand occasions, all to whom wealth gave something to secure, or rank something to maintain; all whom wit rendered anxious for distinction, or talent prompted to ambition; all whom the cardinal either loved or feared, hated or admired.

Here for example, would be Voiture throwing off his empty couplets, Rotrou, Scudéri, Corneille, and Molière, all poets; the duc d'Enghien [*Darn-aj ah'n*], called the *hero de l'histoire*; the duc de Guise, so conspicuous in the revolution of Naples, called the *hero de la fable*; and the queen's grand favourite, the beautiful widow of the duc de Luynes [*Del-ween*], the present wife of the duc de Chevreuse, whom the cardinal hated, but nevertheless delighted to receive. Here, too, would be found Marie de Bourbon, and her future husband the duc de Longueville; the comte de Coligny [*Co-leen-ye*]; the marquis de Brion; the great Condé; Mazarin, and even L'Angèli, the court fool.

Amongst this courtly throng, all dressed in the gayest fashion, walked Richelieu, arrayed in the long scarlet robes of his order, and wearing his cardinal's hat; treating his guests with the profound humility of excessive pride; trying to tutor the fire of his eye into an expression of graciousness, and to soften the tones of his deep voice into the suavity of courtesy.

He was of middle height. His face deadly pale and rather swarthy; his features attenuated; his forehead large, and on his temple was a scar. His hair was black and long; his large eyes glistened with sagacity; his brows were thick and arched; his mouth small; his voice clear, firm, and sepulchral. He wore both moustaches and an imperial, then called a royal.

His constitution was always feeble, and he was often indisposed. His manners were severe, and his gait haughty but jerking.

When he went to war he laid aside his cardinal robes, and appeared on a superb charger, with a plumed hat on his head, a coat embroidered with gold, a cuirass, and a sword. He was almost the last churchman that was allowed to lead the French armies.

CITY OF PARIS IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIII.

Richelieu greatly beautified the city of Paris with fine churches and other public buildings, but the streets were still narrow, filthy, and dark.

Henri duc de Guise, when a young man, frequently amused himself by getting on the roof of a house, and jumping across the street to the opposite roof. All the offal of the houses was deposited in the streets, as, indeed, it is to the present day. And the only method of lighting the city was by *falots*

(pans of pitch, grease, and other combustibles), placed at the corners of the streets.

These dark and dirty lanes were the haunts of cut-throats and thieves, who were so numerous, that it was dangerous to appear abroad without arms and a numerous train of attendants. (*see p. 90 and 236*).

STATE OF FRANCE IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIII.

Though much improvement in all the arts of life, and a considerable increase of population had taken place, during the latter years of Henri IV. and the regency of his son, yet was the country thinly peopled, and its appearance widely different to what it is at present.

Politically and socially, it was split into fragments: There were the nobles, who made war against each other; the king who made war against the cardinal; Spain who made war against the king; the robbers, mendicants, Huguenots, and freebooters, who made war with everybody.

Amidst such general distrust, how could industry develop its resources? Amidst such endless contentions, how could the people multiply? Amidst such lawlessness and insecurity, how could cities and hamlets thrive? Where we now see the village and the homestead, was then the haunt of the deer, freebooter, and wild boar.

All private roads were made and kept in repair by the Seigneur, through whose estates they ran, consequently, none but the principal thoroughfares were passable for a carriage, and this difficulty of communication not only hindered commerce, but aided highway robbery, and kept people isolated.

Though Paris, therefore, was crowded, gay, and pretty prosperous, the rest of France was injured by absenteeism, consequent on the policy of the cardinal; and the separation of the upper from the lower classes, while it strengthened for a time the power of the crown, divided the state, and brought about the downfall of the "ancient régime."

COSTUME IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIII.

The costume of this period was the most elegant and picturesque ever adopted, and has been denominated the *Vandyke*, because the figures painted by Vandyke are represented therein.

(1) **Gentlemen** wore a *doublet* of silk, satin, or velvet, with large loose sleeves slashed up in front. The collar was worn round the neck with "Vandyke" edging and falling bands of point-lace; and a short cloak was carelessly slung over one shoulder.

The *breeches* were fringed or pointed. They no longer terminated in the middle of the thigh, but hung loose on the leg, and met the tops of the wide boots, which were edged with lace.

The *boots* were of Spanish leather; not fitting the leg, but loose and rucked; and in the high heels were inserted a pair of enormously long spurs.

The *barrette* or cap of the middle ages, was in this reign changed for a *chapeau à plume*, that is, a Flemish beaver, with a rich hatband and plume of feathers.

A most magnificent *baldrick* or sword-belt, thrown over the right shoulder, supported a Spanish rapier; and a switch or riding-whip was indispensable.

The beard was a small pointed tuft called a royal. The moustaches were twisted upwards. And the hair flowed in profusion over the neck and shoulders.

(2) The **Ladies** had wholly abandoned the hideous ruffs, and the still more ugly standing collar; and had adopted instead an elegant "neck-fall," edged with lace.

In imitation of the gentlemen's sword-belt they wore a sash over the right shoulder, richly studded with beads or pearls.

The *gowns* were full and long in the skirt; the sleeves large at the shoulder, but tight at the wrist, where they terminated with lace ruffles.

The hair was extremely long, curled, and powdered. Every lady painted and roged, and wore in the streets a mask and hood.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIII.

In all parts of Europe, letters, the arts, and sciences, made mighty strides in the first half of the 17th century. *England* had her Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, and Lord Bacon; *Spain* her Cervantès and Lopè-de-Vega; *Italy* her Galilèo, Torricelli, Guido, and Domenichino; *Holland* her Grotius, Arminius, and Jansen; *Flanders* her Rubens, Vandyke, and Teniers; *Germany* her Kepler; and *Sweden*, her Stjernhjelm [*Shearn-yelm*], the father of modern Swedish poetry.

And who had France to join this magnificent phalanx of great names? Richelieu has been mentioned; so has Nicolas Poussin [*Poo-sah'n*], the greatest and last painter of the Italian school, and Vouet [*Voo-a*], the founder of the Italian-French school. Who else was there? Descartes [*Day-cart*] the mathematician; Brantome, whose nine volumes of biography present a most graphic and faithful picture of the state of society in France; Duchesne [*Du-shain*], the antiquarian, who published several works of high standing, as "Topographical Authors of France," "History of Norman Authors," "Antiquities and Researches," "Dukes and Kings of Burgundy," "Louis XIII.," &c.; and lastly, Honoré d'Urfé, the father of Pastoral Romance, who will be mentioned more at large under the title "Romances and Novels."

Descartes (1596—1650) stands in the very highest range of mathematicians. He reduced the laws of refraction, called *dioptrics*, to a science; made some valuable observations on the declination of the magnetic needle; introduced the algebraic method of notation; and was the first to explain the phenomenon of the rainbow.

His chief works are "Principles of Philosophy," "Dioptrics," "Geometry," "Light," "Meditations," a treatise on "Mars," another on the "Passions," and a host of "Letters."

As a philosopher he is known by his celebrated axiom, "I think, and therefore I exist" (*cogito, ergo sum*). From this axiom he inferred the existence of God also, in this way: "I can think of infinity and perfection; such ideas cannot originate from myself, but must have been imparted to me by a perfect and infinite Being, that Being we call God; therefore there must be a God."

LOUIS XIV. LE GRAND-MONARQUE.

REIGNED 72 YEARS. FROM 1643 TO 1715. The longest reign of any European monarch.

Contemporary with Charles I., Cromwell, Charles II., James II., William III., and Anne

Kingdom. 1648. Alsace added to the crown by conquest; 1665. Nivernais by reversion; 1668. Flanders by conquest; 1678. Franche-Comté by conquest.

Married twice. First, Maria-Luisa-Terèsa, of Austria, infanta of Spain, and grand-daughter of Henri-le-Grand. At the death of Terèsa, he privately married Françoise D'Aubigné, widow of the poet Scarron, better known as Madame de Maintenon.

His most celebrated courtessans were Mademoiselle de La Vallière, Madame de Montespan, and Mademoiselle de Fontange.

Issue by his first wife: Louis the Dauphin.

by Mademoiselle de La Vallière: Mademoiselle de Blois and the comte de Vermandois. by Madame de Montespan: Mademoiselle de Nantes, Mademoiselle de Blois, the duc du Maine, the comte de Toulouse, and four others.

N.B. The Dauphin, who died in 1712, had three sons, viz., the duke of Burgundy, who died 1711; Philippe, duc d'Anjou, afterwards king of Spain; and the duc de Noailles.

The duke of Burgundy had one son, Louis, who succeeded his great-grandfather. *La Valtière's daughter married the prince de Conti.*

Mademoiselle de Nantes married Louis-de-Bourbon, eldest son of the prince de Condé.

Mademoiselle de Blois (her sister) married the duc de Chartres, who was afterwards duc d'Orléans and Regent of France.

Residences. Versailles, Marly, Fontainebleau.

History of the Reign. "Le Siècle de Louis XIV.," by Voltaire; "Histoire de Louis XIV.," by Pélisson; "Essai sur l'établissement monarchique de Louis XIV.," by Lémonty.

Titles.

Monseigneur.....Louis, the king's son.

MonsieurPhilippe duc d'Orléans, the king's brother.

MadameHis wife

Petit-fils de la France ...Philippe, son of the above, duc de Chartres.

MademoiselleDaughter of the above.

La Grande Mademoiselle, The duchess of Montpensier, the king's cousin, daughter of Gaston duc d'Orléans.

Monsieur le Prince.....Prince de Condé.

Madame la Princesse....His wife, a natural daughter of the king.

Monsieur le Duc ... Henri-Jules de Bourbon, their eldest son.

Madame la DuchesseHis wife, a natural daughter of the king.

Monsieur le GrandThe Grand Equerry.

Monsieur le Coadjuteur ...Paul de Gondî, who was afterwards Cardinal de Retz [Ress].

State of Europe.

England was disturbed by the civil wars of Charles I. and Cromwell;

Germany was also a prey to civil wars;

Spain was feeble; Italy divided.

Holland and Portugal had gained independence;

Sweden was at the summit of her glory;

Russia was beginning to rise to importance.

The reign of Louis-quatorze, the longest of all the kings of Europe, may be conveniently divided into three periods: His minority, his prime, and his old age. The first was a period of turbulence and disorder; the second of triumph and splendour; the last of afflictions, mortifications, and reverses.

The first extended over 18 years, and terminates with the death of Mazarin; the second over 22 years, and terminates with the death of Colbert [*Côl-bair*]; the third over 32 years, and terminates with the death of Louis himself in the 77th year of his age.

FIRST EPOCH OF THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

FROM HIS ACCESSION TO THE DEATH OF MAZARIN (1643—1661).

Contemporary with Charles I. and Cromwell.

At the death of Richelieu France fell into a state of weakness and anarchy. The guiding hand was gone, and there was no one to fill the vacancy. The king was only five years old. The nobles, without restraint, grew turbulent and insolent. The people took advantage of the times to vindicate their liberty, and foreign enemies to invade the frontiers of the kingdom.

The queen-mother was appointed regent, and Mazarin was her chief minister. Both were foreigners, unequal to their duties; both were disliked; and neither had the gift of winning or preserving friends.

Del Signor Giulio **Mazarini** (1602—1661), called by the French Cardinal de Mazärin, was the son of a fisherman of Piscina, in Naples, and was educated in Spain. It is said that the queen was privately married to him; and, truly, his great familiarity with the haughty Spaniard, his unlimited influence over her, and her infatuation for the churchman, whom all men spoke ill of, render the surmise by no means improbable.

His administration was singularly unpopular; and was chiefly remarkable for the war with Spain, and the civil rebellion called the "Fronde War."

SECTION I. WAR WITH THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA, CONTINUED

(1635—1659).

The war with Germany and Spain, begun by Richelieu, was continued almost to the close of Mazärin's administration. Its conduct was confided to the duc d'Enghien [*Darn-ä-jě-ah'n*], afterwards called the Great Condé, whose victories are among the most heroic of the French nation.

Louis-de-Bourbon duc de **Enghien** (1621—1686) was the son of Henri-de-Bourbon, and, at his father's death, succeeded to the title of Prince de Condé. His wife, his sister the duchess of Longueville, and his brother the prince of Conti, were among the most conspicuous characters of the time.

Louis, better known as the Great Condé, and styled *Monsieur le Prince*, was a man of wit and elegance, "the glass of fashion and the mould of form." His nose was hooked; his eye that of an eagle; his hair flowed in long curls over his shoulders; his stature was of middle height; and his figure perfect. He possessed the three requisites of a great commander—a quick sight, a rapid decision, and an indomitable courage.

Victories of the duc d'Enghien.

(1) **Rocroy** (1643). At the death of Charles-le-Téméraire of Burgundy, Flanders belonged to his daughter Marie, who espoused the archduke Maximilian. By this alliance, all her vast possessions became attached to the House of Austria, and were bones of never-ending contention.

Five days after the death of Louis-the-Just, the duc d'Enghien was sent into Flanders against an army of Spaniards, and won at Rocroy the most brilliant victory that had been achieved since the *Battle of the Giants*. The redoubtable Spanish infantry, hitherto considered invincible, was cut to pieces; and the count of Fuentes [*Fwen'taze*], who commanded it, was left dead upon the field.

(2) **Freiburg** (1644). The year following, the young conqueror marched into Germany against François-de-Merci of Lorraine, one of the greatest generals of the age, in the service of the Elector of Bavaria.

The belligerents met at Freiburg [*Fry-burg*], in the Grand Duchy of Baden, and the contest lasted three days, when the duke determined the issue by throwing his bâton into the enemy's trenches.

Of course, he could not allow it to be carried off by the foe, and therefore all his staff rushed forward to recover it. The whole army followed; and so irresistible was the attack, that victory was no longer delayed.

(3) **Nördlingen** (1645). Next year, he encountered Merci a second time, and gained at Nördlingen [*Neurt-ling-en*], in Bavaria, another victory. In this battle, the Bavarian general was so severely wounded that he died the day following.

(4) **Dunkirk taken** (1646). Seconded by Van Tromp, the Dutch admiral, he next took from Spain the seaport and fortified town of Dunkirk, which was added to the crown of France.

It soon fell again into the hands of Spain. In 1658 it was ceded to England; but in 1662 Charles II. sold it to Louis XIV. for £500,000. Since which time, it has always been a part of the kingdom of France.

(5) **Lens** (1648). The duke, now prince of Condé by the death of his father, next marched against the archduke Leopold, brother of the emperor of Germany. A battle was fought at Lens, in the Pas-de-Calais, in which Leopold was utterly defeated, and 100 colours, with 38 pieces of artillery, fell into the hands of the conqueror. Never since the foundation of the monarchy had such a series of victories been achieved by one man.

The emperor of Germany and king of Spain had now been at war with the Protestant princes of the empire for 30 years, and for the last four the whole tide of battle had set in against them. Ferdinand III., weary of the struggle, proposed a peace, which was accepted by Sweden and France, but not by Spain. The treaty, which was signed at Munster, in Westphalia, is sometimes called the *Treaty of Munster*, and sometimes the *Peace of Westphalia*.

Peace of Westphalia (1648). By the terms of this treaty, the "balance of power" in Europe was first recognized. Alsace was ceded to France; a part of Pomerania to Sweden; the Swiss cantons were declared independent; and the German Protestants were admitted to equal rights with their Catholic fellow-countrymen.

As Spain refused to sign the peace, hostilities still continued between that power and France; and, in a very short time, war broke out afresh in the Low-Countries, but its interest was absorbed for the next five years, by the famous civil rebellion called "The Wars of the Fronde."

SECTION II. THE CIVIL WAR CALLED LA-FRONDE (1648—1653).

The administration of Mazärin pleased nobody. It was subtle, but not strong; expensive, but contemptibly mean; exacting and selfish. In the course of five years, he had contrived to create for himself a hatred and indignation almost universal.

(1) He was a foreigner, who spoke the language very imperfectly. His blunders of speech were the subjects of perpetual jests, and exposed him to daily ridicule.

(2) He pertinaciously adhered to his Italian customs and habits; and was singularly ignorant of the laws, history, and habits of the nation he professed to govern.

(3) He was despicably mean and miserly. Paid for services with a most grudging hand, and shuffled off payment as long as he could do so with impunity.

(4) He overwhelmed the people with imposts; and was constantly levying new taxes, a large portion of which he appropriated to himself.

(5) He kept the young king in so destitute a condition, that every one cried shame upon him. It is said, that the sheets of the royal bed were actually in rags, and that the king was worse dressed and had fewer attendants than any of his young nobles.

(6) Not only was he thus mean, grasping, and selfish; he had no great redeeming qualities to set off against these faults. He was a man of very ordinary talents, though not deficient in diplomatic cunning and intrigue.

(7) He was a *parvenu*; a man without a name; had been the servant of Cardinal Bentivoglio; and had neither the manners nor feelings of a gentleman.

(8) He was either privately married to the queen, or at any rate had the reputation of being so. Anne of Austria was his slave, whom he treated without respect and ruled as a bully.

Thus was he liked by no party. The king despised him for his meanness and arrogance; the nobles, because he was an upstart and intruder; the magistrates, because he degraded their office by putting it up to sale; the people, because he crushed them with taxes.

At length, the *parlement* of Paris remonstrated; and this interference brought about the Wars of the Fronde.

L'arret d'Union (1648).* Among other foolish and arbitrary measures, Mazärin proposed two which affected the *parlements*: One was to suppress the hereditary right of magistrates; and the other to keep back, for four years, the salaries of all the members of the "crown courts," except those of the Paris guild.

The courts thus threatened immediately appealed to the Paris *parlement*, and protested that the great object of the cardinal was to sow dissension amongst the brethren of the law, in order to strip them of their power and prerogatives. The Paris lawyers were of the same opinion, and, therefore, passed immediately the famous *Act of Union*, whereby two councillors were deputed from each of its courts to form

* In order to understand this contest the better, read over the description of *Parlements*, on p. 68. Mazarin pronounce Maz-a-rah'.

a select committee, to take into consideration the present aspect of events.

Mazärin interfered, declared the committee to be without authority, and all its measures illegal. The queen-regent took the same view; and vowed vengeance against the refractory lawyers, if they persisted in their contumacious conduct.

The committee met, notwithstanding, and presented to the *parlement* a list of 27 articles for approval, some of which were certainly injudicious, though the larger part was wholly unexceptionable: Such, for example, as the abolition of monopolies; the reduction of the imposts; the prohibition to impose taxes without the authority of a States-General, or of arresting any one without assigning a cause; rendering it obligatory in the crown to bring prisoners to trial within a given time; and so on.

These "articles" were looked upon by the court party as subversive of royalty, and by the people as the foundation of liberty. Those who disapproved of them and sided with the cardinal were called *Mazarinians*; those who upheld them, *Frondeurs*.

¶ The word *Frondeurs*, applied to the malcontents in this contest, arose from a witty illustration of a councillor, who said they were "like school-boys, who sling stones about the streets. When no eye is upon them they are bold as bullies; but the moment a 'policeman' approaches, away they scamper to the ditches for concealment."

The French for a sling is *Fronde*, and these stone-slinging boys were called *Frondeurs*. The illustration tickled the fancy of the Parisians, and the anti-government men adopted the name.

Soon, everything of a popular cast was denominated *à la Fronde*. There were *Fronde* hats, coats and gloves, *Fronde* muffs and fans, *Fronde* dishes and loaves of bread, *Fronde* songs and tunes; everything was *à la Fronde*, and the contest which lasted for five years was called the *Fronde War*.

The Rupture (1648). Matters remained pretty quiet till the autumn, when the king (then 10 years of age) went to hold a *lit de justice*, that is, to preside in *person* over the Paris *parlement*, and dictate to the members the edicts he required them to register.

Every one looked forward to this event with anxiety, under the hope that the young monarch would remove some of the evils complained of; what, therefore, was their indignation, when they found he had been schooled to enforce the imposition of new taxes?

Blancmesnil [*Blar'n-men-eel*] the president, and Broussel [*Broos-sel*] an eminent councillor, boldly opposed the royal edicts; and when the youthful Louis returned to the Palais-Royal, he was followed by an infuriated mob, shouting "Broussel for ever!" "Down with Mazärin!" "Broussel and Liberty!"

Attempts were made to disperse the noisy crowd, but wholly without effect; and, in a few hours, all Paris was in insurrection.

Arrest of Broussel (26th August, 1648). It was just at this crisis of affairs, that the Great Condé gained the famous victory of Lens over the archduke Leopold; and a *Te Deum* was appointed to be sung in the cathedral church of Notre-Dame, for thanksgiving.

The king attended in full state; but, while the service was going on, the queen-regent sent to arrest Blancmesnil [*Blar'n-men-eel*] and Broussel for their speeches in opposition to the king. The former contrived to escape, but the latter was seized, and sent to the castle of Vincennes [*Varn-cenn*].

This outrage excited the city to madness. The streets were barricaded, and gangs paraded them, wearing as a badge a wisp of straw in their hats, and shouting to the top of their bent, "Broussel for ever!" "Broussel and Liberty!"

The queen became alarmed. It was the very time when Charles I. was struggling against Cromwell; and Anne of Austria began to fear that the crown of France was in jeopardy. She sent for Mazärin and Monsieur le Coadjuteur in haste; both urged her to release the councillor; but she pertinaciously refused, till the rioters forced their way into the palace, and compelled her to relent.

The mob then quietly dispersed; Broussel was brought to Paris in triumph; and the riot remained in abeyance for two or three days.

Flight of the Court (1649). In the meantime, Anne of Austria directed the prince de Condé to march to Paris, with all possible speed, to crush the rebellion; and made her escape, with Mazärin and her two sons, to St. Germain.

Nothing was prepared for her; the courtiers were obliged to sleep upon straw, taken from contiguous farms; the queen had to pledge the crown jewels to supply her immediate wants; and the pages of the bed-chamber were dismissed, because there was not bread enough to supply them with food.

When the Parisians discovered the flight of the royal family, they sent a deputation to implore the queen to return. This she refused to do, unless the *parlement* humbled itself, and gave up to punishment the leaders of the present revolt.

This was wholly out of the question; so the *parlement* declared Mazärin an outlaw, and commanded him, on pain of death, to quit the court immediately, and the country within a week.

Open hostilities were no longer possible to be avoided; so the court made preparations for attacking Paris, and the Frondeurs for its defence.

At the head of the popular party, were Paul-de-Gondi the Coadjutor, the prince de Conti brother of the Great Condé, his sister the

duchess of Longueville, marshal Turenne, and the dukes of Beaufort and La Rochefoucauld. In fact, almost all the aristocracy were on the same side,* not from any sympathy with the cause, but from hatred to the Italian.

On the court side was the Great Condé, who marched at once to the capital, at the head of 7000 men, and with him a host of the inferior gentry.

Treaty of Ruel (1649). While both parties were arming themselves for battle, Mazärin contrived, by bribes and promises, to detach from the Fronde several of the ring-leaders, which was easily effected, as they had joined the insurgents solely for their own aggrandisement.

When matters had been going on in this manner for about a year, Mathieu Molé, a virtuous magistrate, headed a deputation to the queen-regent, residing at Ruel and induced her to return to Paris.

As the royal cortége passed along the streets, the queen was hooted, and Mazärin assailed on all sides. The terms of the treaty were pleasing to neither party, so the court went back to Ruel again, and the Frondeurs became more clamorous than ever.

Condé quits the Court (1650). The prince de Condé, who had conducted the court back to Paris, and had rendered so many important services, assumed on his merits and popularity, to dictate to the queen-regent; and his presumption rendered him insupportable. Though he headed the Mazarinians he hated the cardinal, and made no attempt to conceal his aversion.

Soon a party gathered round him, called the *Little Fronde*. The Frondeurs tried in vain to attach him to themselves, but he was far too haughty and arrogant to listen to their proposals. "Lifted up so high, he scorned subjection, and thought that one step higher would set him highest."

Condé, Conti, and Longueville, Arrested (1650). Mazärin now resolved to strike a vigorous blow, and sent to arrest the Great Condé, his brother the prince de Conti, and his aged brother-in-law the duc de Longueville. All of whom he confined in the strong castle of Vincennes [*Varn-cenn*].

This bold stroke did not succeed; "the snake was scotched, not killed." The three princes being removed, the mother, wife, and sister of Condé, headed his party, aided by the duke of Orleans, the king's uncle.

Province after province fell into their hands, and the aspect of affairs grew so formidable, that the queen-regent was obliged to con-

* For example: The dukes de Longueville, d'Elbœuf, de Bouillon, de Nemours, de Chevreuse; the marquises de Vitry, de Normentiers, de Largue, de Seigné; the counts de Fiesque, de Montrésor; the marshal de la Mothe; M.M. Brissac, de Luynes, &c., &c.

ciliate the malcontents by liberating the three princes, and dismissing Mazärin, who retired to Cologne [*Co-lonn*].

The **Frondeurs Disunited** (1651). The insurgents seemed now triumphant, but intrigue soon changed the whole aspect of affairs. The queen won over marshal Turenne, and Mazarin the Coadjutor. The prince de Condé was left in the lurch, quitted Paris in a huff, and allied himself to the Spaniards, to wreck vengeance on his "ungrateful countrymen."

Guyenne, Poitou, Saintonge, Angoumois, and several other provinces south of the Loire, declared for him; and the queen-regent once more left her palace to accompany the royal troops in their march against the revolvers.

Condé and Turenne had now changed sides. The former had quitted the court party, the latter the Frondeurs. The former was heading an army of French, Germans, and Spaniards against his former friends, and the latter was commanding the forces of his former opponents to encounter his old antagonist.

Mazarin's Return (1651). When Anne of Austria was sufficiently distant from Paris to be out of the reach of the Frondeurs, she sent for Mazärin to join her. He instantly entered France with an army of 8000 men, and was met by the king and the king's brother at Poitiers, with every mark of distinction.

Placed again at the head of affairs, the obnoxious Italian became more powerful than ever.

Mademoiselle de Montpensier at Orleans (1652). As soon as Mazärin had returned, the queen directed her course back again to Paris, intending to pass through Orleans on her way thither.

Condé wished to intercept her, and Mademoiselle de Montpensier undertook to accomplish this desirable object. She reached the city at the head of a band of soldiers; effected an entrance through a drain or watercourse; presented herself before the citizens in council; and won them over to the prince's side.

When the royal army arrived, they found the gates closed against them; and as it was not expedient to set siege to the city, they re-ascended the Loire, which they crossed at Gien [*Zje-ah'n*].

Here a part of the army under Turenne encamped for the night; while the rest, under the command of Hocquincourt, took up their quarters at Bléneau [*Bla-no*].

At midnight, the latter were attacked with great vigour. The village was fired; the royal troops were either cut down or put to rout; and Condé followed the fugitives to Gien. Here Turenne was ready to give him battle; and the prince, not daring to encounter so formidable a rival, withdrew his troops, but dogged the royalists in their march to the faubourg St. Antoine, where a most sanguinary battle

took place. The two greatest generals of the age were pitted against each other; and neither would yield with life.

In this crisis, *Mademoiselle* again appeared, like the good genius of her brother. Mounting the Bastille, she ordered the cannons to be fired on the royal troops. Resistance was no longer possible; and Condé was left master of the contest.

All Paris was now in his hands, and the queen-regent, with her sons, took refuge in Poitiers.

The **Fronde War concluded** (1653). Things were now come to extremities. Mazärin was the sole cause of the war, and the only obstacle to its conclusion. The queen's advisers exhorted her to give way; she could resist no longer, and with bad grace again dismissed her favourite, who retired to Sedan.

The dismissal of Mazärin was hailed at Paris with acclamations; and the Coadjutor induced the king to return to the capital. He received a cardinal's cap for his service, and was henceforth called the Cardinal de Retz [*Ress*].

The duke of Orleans was forthwith banished to Blois [*Blwor*], where he passed the rest of his life; and Condé, finding himself threatened, went to the Netherlands to join the Spanish army.

The chief leaders of the Fronde being thus banished, the queen again recalled the exiled minister; and thus ended the Fronde War, at once the most remarkable and most foolish in French history.

More verses and jests were fired in this rebellion than powder and shot. The court made songs on the Frondeurs, and the Frondeurs on the court. The insurgents would never acknowledge themselves rebels, as they professed to be staunch royalists. They revolted not against the king, but against Mazärin, whom the king disliked quite as much as they did. The object of the rising was to disseat a foreign minister; but after a fruitless effort of five years, nothing whatever was effected. Mazärin was re-established, as despotic, as frivolous, as avaricious, as exacting, as mean, and extravagant as ever.

Madame de Motteville's *Memoirs of Anne of Austria* contains much valuable information upon this famous civil strife (1621—1689).

Peace of the Pyrenees (1660). The Fronde war being over, Mazärin applied to Cromwell for his alliance; and the Lord Protector agreed to send to his aid an army of 6000 men, provided Dunkirk were ceded to the English.

The condition was accepted. The united armies attacked Condé in the *Dunes*, and vanquished him; after which Spain demanded peace, having been at war with France for 25 years.

This peace, called the *Peace of the Pyrenees*, was the most useful and memorable act in the administration of the Neapolitan. It stipulated that Spain should cede to France Roussillon and Artois; that

France should restore all her conquests in Catalonia and Italy; and that England should be allowed to retain Dunkirk.

The prince de Condé was pardoned and restored to all his honours and dignities; and Louis XIV. married the Infanta *Maria Luisa Teresa*, daughter of Felipe IV. of Spain.

Death of Mazarin (1661). In the March following died Mazārin, in the 59th year of his age, having amassed in 18 years the enormous fortune of five millions sterling, which he left between his five nieces.

Deeply skilled in the knowledge of mankind, he was never surpassed in state craft and diplomacy. He was no friend to France, and yet France owes him considerable obligations. The peace of Westphalia and that of the Pyrenees were brought about by his means. He founded the academy of painting and sculpture, as well as the splendid library which bears his name. He was passionately fond of music, and turned the theatre of Richelieu into a music hall, where he caused to be performed the first operas ever represented in France.

He was rather below the middle height, of an elegant shape and handsome person. His complexion was clear, his eyes brilliant, his nose prominent and well proportioned, his forehead broad, his hair of a chesnut colour and curly, his beard full and darker than his hair, his hands and feet extremely small, of which he was not a little vain.

He was very unjust to the young king, whom he tried to keep in profound ignorance and without money; but with his usual insight into character, he remarked, "There is stuff enough in that young man for four kings."

The death of Mazārin was very characteristic. When assured by his physician that he could not live, he caused himself to be dressed, shaved, rouged, and enamelled. In this state, he was rolled in his chair through his picture gallery, exclaiming as he went along, "That Correggio, this Venus of Titian, that incomparable Caracci! Must I quit them all? Farewell, beloved ones! None can know how my heart bleeds to leave you!" He was then wheeled into the promenade, where cards were introduced, and his hands were supported while he joined the game. This went on, till the papal Nuncio came to give him plenary indulgence.

Mazārin was bishop of Metz; held the abbeys of St. Clement, St. Arnould, and St. Vincent (all in the same bishopric); the abbeys of St. Denis, Cluny, St. Midaré at Soissons, and St. Victor at Marseilles. He was cardinal, chief minister of the crown, &c., &c. Altogether he made about two millions a year.

When the cardinal was interred, and the three principal ministers of the crown, Fouquet, Lyonne, and Letellier, entered the presence-chamber, the young monarch said to them, "Gentlemen, as long as the cardinal lived, I allowed him to govern my affairs; but henceforth I intend to govern them myself. You will give me your advice when I ask for it. Good morning."

Anne of Austria died 1666 of cancer, with which she had been afflicted for eight years.

SECOND EPOCH OF THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

FROM THE DEATH OF MAZARIN TO THAT OF COLBERT (1661—1683).

Contemporary with Charles II.

On the death of Mazārin, Louis XIV., who was 22 years old, became the real head and master of the state. He kept his ministers under the strictest control; devoted his time to business with unwearied assiduity; and was attentive and methodical in all his arrangements.

The servants of the crown most distinguished in this glorious period were Colbert controller-general of finance, Louvois secretary of war, Turenne commander-in-chief of the army, and prince de Condé, who, on the death of Turenne, succeeded to the same high office.

§ 1. *Colbert made Minister of Finance.*

Jean-Baptiste **Colbert** (1619—1683) was born at Reims [*Rah'nce*], where his father, descended from a Scotch family, was a woollen-draper and wine-merchant, to which trades Jean-Baptiste served his apprenticeship. He afterwards entered the service of Letellier, secretary of state, and was then transferred to Cardinal Mazārin, whose factotum he became.

Mazārin, on his death-bed, warmly recommended him to the young king. "Sire," said he, "I owe you much, but acquit myself of every obligation, in bequeathing to you such a man as Colbert" [*Côl-bair*]. Louis appointed the person thus recommended controller-general of finance; and, in a short time, the financial department of France was restored to a most healthy condition.

He disgraced Fouquet [*F'oo-kay*],* and imprisoned him for life "for embezzlement of the public funds." He instituted a council of finance, and chamber of justice to call to account the farmers of the state revenues, and compel them to disgorge the wealth they had obtained by fraud. He reduced the national debt nearly one half by arbitrary composition; suppressed a vast number of useless and sinecure places; and lowered the rate of interest from 8 to 5 per cent.

So complete and thorough were his reforms that he raised the annual revenue from four to five millions sterling, and placed to the public account three-fold as much as his predecessor had done.

§ 2. *What Colbert did for commerce.*

Colbert [*Côl-bair*] did not rest satisfied with being a fiscal reformer only, but in various ways developed the industrial activity of

* Nicolas **Fouquet** (1615—1680), superintendent of finance during the regency, was the richest man of France next to Mazārin, and spent the enormous sum of 18 millions sterling on his château and park at Vaux. Here he gave constant entertainments of more than regal splendour; patronized poetry and the arts with prodigal liberality; and bestowed liberal pensions on a host of poor worthies, such as La-Fontaine, Molière, Pellisson, Loret, Lenôtre, Lebrun, and many others.

Colbert accused him of peculation, and succeeded in obtaining his arrest. He was brought to trial, and imprisoned for life in the citadel of Pignerol [*Pin-ye-rol*], but it must be confessed that the crime with which he was charged was never proven.

the nation. He established, revived, or greatly encouraged all manufactures, especially the glass-manufactures of Cherbourg; the fine-cloths of Louviers, Abbeville, and Sedan; the carpets of La-Savonnerie; the silks of Tours and Lyons; the manufactures of lace; and the famous Gobelins tapestry. France owes to him also her skill in clock-making, the restoration of horse-breeding, and the culture of madder.

To facilitate commerce, he opened several new roads, and kept the highways in thorough repair; lighted the streets; joined the Mediterranean to the Atlantic by the canal of Languedoc; made the ports of Rochefort and Cette; and enlarged those of Marseilles, Toulon, and Brest.

mercantalism

Not content with these important works, he occupied himself with equal zeal in creating *vents* for the produce of the nation; for which purpose he established chambers of commerce, marts, and commercial treaties; founded the colonies of Guadeloupe, Cayenne, Madagascar, Pondicherry, and Chandernagore; and organized anew those in Canada, Martinique, and St. Domingo.

Made minister of marine in 1669, he found France with a few old rotten vessels; but within three years raised a fleet of 60 ships of the line, and 40 frigates.

§ 3. Colbert's other Works.

He improved the Civil code, introduced the Marine code, and one for the colonies called the *Code-Noire* or code for the negroes.

While attending to the material interests of France, he neglected not the arts and sciences. All men of learning and genius found in him a generous patron.

He founded the Academies of Inscriptions, Science, and Architecture; removed the Royal Library to a more suitable locality, and increased the number of volumes from 10,000 to 40,000; prepared the first statistical tables of the population; had the meridian of Paris accurately fixed; and covered the French frontiers on the north and east with a triple line of fortresses. *Vauban*

In order to complete these fortresses, he purchased of Charles II. for £500,000 the town of Dunkirk, which had been ceded to Cromwell by cardinal Mazarin.

It is generally thought that the *Omnibus* is a modern mode of conveyance. This is not the case. Two hundred years ago (1662) a royal decree of Louis XIV. authorized the establishment of omnibuses, at a fixed price (twopence halfpenny), under the name of *carrosses à cinq sous*. Seven were started; each containing eight places; and all were obliged to run at stated hours, whether full or not. Three started from the Porte St. Antoine, and four from the Luxembourg.

The present *Entreprise générale des Omnibus* was established in 1827. Shillibeer introduced the omnibus into London three years later (1830).

§ 4. *Colbert's Character, Person, &c.*

Colbert [*Côl-bair*] was 13 years older than the king; a small, vulgar-looking man, with high shoulders, a large round head, a harsh scowling face, and stiff pedantic manners. His eyes were very small, black, and deep-set; his brows bushy and overhanging; his hair coarse, black, lank, and thin; his forehead high, massive, and full of wrinkles.

His perseverance was untiring; his persistency perfectly dogged; nothing could move him from his resolution. He was wonderfully astute, stolid, and quiet, honest and faithful, painstaking and industrious, exact and punctual, a first-rate accountant, and a man of great ambition.

He amassed a princely fortune, though he was one of the most conscientious ministers that France ever enjoyed. And under his administration France attained to a state of prosperity which she had never reached before.

With Colbert [*Côl-bair*] the glory of this long reign began, and with him it ended. He was the good genius of the king; and when he died, the weakness and vain-glory of Louis soon broke into atoms the splendid fabric, and replaced order and prosperity with debt, anarchy, and dishonour.

François Michel de Letellier, marquis de Louvois (1641—1691), was another minister, who contributed to render this period of the reign of Louis glorious. He regenerated the army, and gave it an organization which attracted the wonder of all Europe. He built barracks and hospitals; and amongst other military establishments founded the famous *Hôtel des Invalides*. He gave the soldiers a regular uniform; introduced the use of the bayonet; and instituted both the artillery college and the college of engineers.

WARS OF FRANCE IN THE SECOND EPOCH OF LOUIS XIV.

§ 1. *War with Spain Renewed (1666—1668).*

Felipe IV. of Spain died in 1665, leaving behind him an infant son, a circumstance of which Louis XIV. availed himself to put in his claim to Flanders and Franche-Comté.

In the "Peace of the Pyrenees," it is true, he had formally renounced all claim to these provinces; but now he pleaded, that the king of Spain had never given him the dowry promised with Maria-Teresa. Of course, the plea was a mere subterfuge, but Turenne was sent with an army to seize upon the coveted possessions.

All Europe was alarmed at these aggressions; and Holland formed with England and Sweden a *triple alliance* for the defence of Spain against France. This formidable league compelled Louis to desist and sign the *treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle*, by which he retained South Flanders, but gave up Franche-Comté to its former master.

§ 2. *War with Holland (1672—1678).*

The **Alliance Dissolved (1672)**. Louis now resolved to win England to himself. He had Charles II. to deal with, a licentious mercenary monarch, whose sister Henrietta was married to the duke of Orleans. He saw his game clearly, and played it well.

He knew it would not do to bully; neither would it do to address himself to the British ministry; nor even to make any open proposal to the king. None of these plans would have had any chance of success; but by playing on the *man*, he might win the king, and by winning the king might gain the nation. So he sent Henrietta to London, accompanied by Louise de Keroualle [*Ker-woll*], the Delilah who was to captivate and then betray.

The amorous monarch was soon caught; took the young French woman into favour; created her duchess of Portsmouth; acted upon her dictation; and the new favourite was for many years the pole-star of the court.

Having succeeded in this quarter, Louis next induced Sweden to stand neuter. The triple alliance was broken up; the bundle of sticks was untied; and France no longer hesitated to declare war with Holland for the part she took in the last war.

The two leading men of Holland, at the time, were De Witt and William prince of Orange (afterwards William III. of England). The former was for coming to terms, but the demands of Louis were so exorbitant, that they were rejected by popular clamour; and the fury of the people was so ungovernable, that De Witt and his brother were literally torn to pieces for bringing this insult on the nation. The leaders of the opposition being dead, William of Orange saved his country by boring the dykes which kept out the sea, and laying the whole country under water.

Quadruple Alliance (1674). In the meantime, Germany, Spain, and Denmark, became alarmed, and formed an alliance with Holland; and though Charles II. refused to be a party to the coalition, he was compelled to withdraw from France, and make peace with the Stadtholder.

The grand-monarque, menaced on all sides, was obliged to retreat; but marching upon Franche-Comté, took it by a *coup-de-main*, and it has ever since remained a portion of the French nation.

Battle of Senef (1674). The Great Condé, about this time, had a battle with the prince of Orange, near Sênep, in Flanders. The fight lasted for 14 hours. Condé had three horses killed under him; 27,000 dead were left upon the field. As the Dutch were driven back, Condé claimed the victory; but when William rallied his forces the prince refused to venture another battle.

Alsace united to France (1674). Turenne had to defend the frontiers on the Rhine, and displayed the resources of his fine genius to the admiration of all Europe.

By a rapid march he crossed the Rhine; put to flight the imperial army; and then marched against other bodies to prevent a coalition. Having accomplished this, he took up his winter quarters in Lorraine; and the enemy supposed the campaign for the year over.

But Turenne had other views. Crossing the mountains covered with deep snow, he all at once appeared in Upper Alsace [*Al-sarce*] in the very midst of the enemy, who believed him to be still in Lorraine. He successively defeated every corps which offered the slightest resistance, and Alsace became a part of the kingdom of France.

Battle of Sasbach (1675). At length, the emperor of Germany sent against him the great Montecuculli, the most renowned captain in the empire. The two generals tried at first to outwit each other by skilful manœuvres, but at length prepared to give battle near the city of Sasbach, in the grand-duchy of Baden.

Turenne thought himself secure of victory; but, while visiting a battery, he was struck by a cannon-ball and killed.

The little town of Sasbach or Salzback will not be found in ordinary maps. It lies about 45 miles N. E. of Strasbourg, and just above Acern. Where Turenne fell, a small pyramid has been erected.

Turenne (1611—1675), at his death, was 64 years of age. He was brought up a Protestant, but was persuaded by Bossuet [*Bos-su-ay*] to become a Catholic. Without controversy, he was one of the greatest men of this or any other age. Mighty as a warrior, and as a tactician wholly unequalled. Clear-sighted and kind-hearted, noble in mind and of the simplest manners, just and generous, a politician and a soldier. He was honoured with a splendid funeral, and buried at St. Denis [*San-Dneé*], amongst the kings of France.

On the death of Turenne, Montecuculli, the imperial general, entered Alsace [*Al-sarce*] without opposition, but the great Condé was sent to drive him out. It is not a little remarkable that both these illustrious rivals finished their public life in the same campaign: Turenne being killed, and Condé retiring to Chantilly [*Sharn-tee-ye*], where he remained in private till his death in 1688.

The Dutch War concluded (1678). In the meantime, Messina shook off the Spanish yoke, and placed itself under the protection of France. Seconded by the Dutch navy, Spain attempted to retake it, but Duquesne [*Du-keen*] was sent by Louis to its defence.

Duquesne gained the naval battles of *Strombôli* and *Agosta*, in which Reuter the famous Dutch admiral lost his life (1676).

These victories were followed by two others, the taking of Valenciennes [*Va-larn-se-enn*] and the victory of Cassel. The former by

the king in person, the latter by the duke of Orleans the king's brother (1677).

Treaty of Nimeguen (1678). The States-General of Holland, weary of the struggle, now sued for peace. A congress was assembled at Nimeguen [*Neem-gen*],* and it was mutually agreed that France should restore whatever she had taken from Holland, but might retain Franche-Comté which she had taken from Spain.

Scarcely was this treaty signed, when Louis took possession of *Strasbourg* by fraud. The seizure, however, was subsequently confirmed to him by the treaty of Ratisbon.

Next year died Paul de Gondi, cardinal de Retz, a Florentine by birth. Though a churchman, he fought several duels; indulged in every species of dissipation; delighted in political intrigue; and was, at the age of 23, head of a conspiracy against the life of Richelieu. In the ministry of Mazarin he was the source of all the cabals which terminated in the *Fronde War*.

At length, the court bought him with a cardinal's hat, and he lost his popularity. He was deeply in debt, and resolved to pay off all he owed, a resolution which he actually carried out. In order to do so, he lived most parsimoniously, and in perfect seclusion as a literary gentleman. His *Memoirs* written by himself are extremely interesting, and the portraits of his contemporaries are drawn with wonderful vigour and truthfulness.

The cardinal de Retz [*Res*] was a little dark man, ill-made, short-sighted, and extremely awkward, but in deportment he was both proud and lofty.

Death of the Queen (1683). The first real loss sustained by the *grand-monarque* was the death of Marie-Thérèse [*Ta-reez*], his pious and virtuous queen.

¶ The same year died Colbert [*Côl-bair*] his great minister, who had governed the kingdom wisely and well for 22 years, but alas! his noble services were but ill appreciated by the king, and little valued by the people! The boundless extravagance of Louis had compelled him to raise money in ways objectionable to his own good sense, and to maintain war-taxes in time of peace. He was smuggled into his grave at the dead of night, or his body would have been torn to pieces by the mob.—Alas, poor Colbert! He had brains but wanted birth, and was therefore hated by those who had birth with fewer brains.

With this second period of the reign, many a name which contributed to its glory disappears from the horizon. The viscount Turenne had been killed in battle eight years ago. The Great Condé had retired from public life, and died in 1688. Duquesne [*Du-keen*] died a few weeks after Marie-Thérèse.† And Colbert in September the same year. The glory of the reign was gone, and the period now before us is one of lamentation, mourning, and woe.

Marquis Duquesne (1610—1688) was born at Dieppe, where a handsome statue was erected to his memory in 1844. To the shame of Louis be it spoken, that this great naval officer never rose beyond the rank of lieutenant-general, merely because he was a Protestant; and it was 160 years before his merit was acknowledged by the public.

* The g hard as in the word *again*.

† Marie-Thérèse, daughter of Felipe IV. of Spain and wife of Louis XIV., must not be confounded with Marie-Thérèse empress of Austria in the 18th century. Both are generally called in English Maria-Theresa.

STATE OF FRANCE AT THE DEATH OF COLBERT.

Louis XIV. had now reached the summit of his power and glory. His name excited throughout Europe both admiration and fear. Even the court of Rome was made to succumb to it; and accept the four famous articles drawn up under the influence of Bossuet [*Bos-sü-ay*].

These four articles provided, that the ecclesiastical power should be subordinate to the civil; that the decision of a general council should supersede the dictum of the pope; that the church should at all times conform to local usages and municipal laws; and that the judgment of the pope even in matters of faith should not be binding, unless ratified by a general council.

¶ Whilst dreaded by the nations around, the *grand-monarque* was wholly absolute in his own kingdom. All orders of the state were alike submissive to his will:

(1) The *Clergy* were forbidden to serve in the army; and, being excluded from the councils also, lost all political influence.

(2) The great *Nobles*, diminished in number by the late wars, were made mere servants of the crown, and attendants about the court, without the slightest power.

(3) The Paris *Parlement* was definitely limited to judiciary duties; and all political or legislative interference was wholly and entirely denied it.

(4) The *Third Estate* lost its municipal liberty by the establishment of paid "Intendants," who were officers of the crown.

(5) And the secret operation of a newly-created police-force reduced the duty of the nation to mere passive obedience.

The king had found no difficulty in thus aggrandizing his office, so long as the people were prosperous, their vanity flattered by military glory, and their love of excitement gratified by pomp and splendour. Colbert [*Côl-bair*] had provided for all these: Manufactures flourished, colonies were established, the sea was covered with French ships, good order was maintained, and noble victories had been won. To complete the enchantment, the king had surrounded himself with the most distinguished men of the age. His patronage was well-bestowed, for "there were giants in those days," who were the glory of the court, and have given to the reign the distinguished honour of being called *The Augustan Age* of France.

There were two ladies in the court who exercised considerable influence over the king, prior to the death of Colbert: Mademoiselle La Vallière [*Lar Val-le-air*] and Madame de Montespan.

(1) Louise-Françoise Labaume Leblanc de LA VALLIERE (1644—1710) was a maid of honour to the duchess of Orléans, when she attracted the notice of Louis XIV. Her skin was delicately white; her thick long hair tinged with a golden hue; her bright azure eyes soft and loving; her voice sweet and gentle; but she was too thin to be beautiful, and she limped in her gait. She was timid, reserved, well-conducted, and coy; humble-minded, conscientious, and sincere; more fond of flowers and natural scenery than of dress and pomp.

The king gave her vast dominions, and she employed her wealth for useful and benevolent ends. Twice she retired to a convent, ashamed of her sinful way of life, and twice the king brought her back again. Ultimately, she was supplanted by Madame de Montespan, and retired to a convent, where she died.

(2) Mademoiselle Athenais de Tonnay-Charente, Marchioness de MONTESPAN (1641—1707), was a companion of Mademoiselle de La Vallière in the train of the duchess of Orléans, and three years her senior. She was married to the marquis of Montespan, when Louis won her favour.

Madame de Montespan was tall, beautiful, and gay; a witty laughter-loving coquette; brilliant in speech, enthusiastic, and of boundless ambition; fond of court and all its excitement. Her hair, which was dark and very abundant, she wore in the manner of the Grecian statues. In her exaltation and disgrace she was charitable, kind to the poor, a rigid observer of fasts and penances, and apparently a most religious woman. Her élève Madame de Maintenon supplanted her, as she herself had supplanted her friend La Vallière [*Lar Val-le-air*].

Mademoiselle de FONTANGES, maid of honour to Madame de Montespan, was a favourite for a few months, but lost her beauty, was discarded, and died at the age of 20. She used to dress her hair with streaming ribbons, and hence this style of head dress was called "*à la Fontanges*."

THIRD PERIOD OF THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

FROM THE DEATH OF COLBERT TO THE END (1683—1715).

Contemporary with James II., William III., and Anne.

No sooner was Colbert [*Côl-bair*] dead, than the glory of this long reign was overshadowed. Great victories and brilliant talents still flashed through the gloom, but it was plain that the monarchy was beginning to totter, and terrible events were looming in the distance.

Edict of Nantes Revoked (1685). One of the first and most fatal mistakes of Louis XIV., when he acted for himself, was to revoke the edict of Nantes [*Narnt*], granted by Henri the Great.

This was a most unprovoked and gratuitous act of oppression. The Huguenots had served him both loyally and well. Some of the most splendour of his victories had been won by Huguenot generals; and a Huguenot seaman was, at the very time, carrying the thunders of his navy into the ports of Spain. As subjects, they were more loyal and obedient than the Catholics; as citizens, more estimable and virtuous; as mechanics, more skilful and industrious. But what of that? They dared to think for themselves, and the vanity of Louis was offended. Madame Scarron, the new favourite, once a Protestant herself, was fierce against them; Louvois [*Loo-vvor*] the all-powerful minister, and Letellier [*La-tel-le-a*] his father, the lord chancellor, advised the measure, and the revocation was made.

By this wanton piece of tyranny, the Protestants of France were at once despoiled of all their civil rights. Their ministers were forbidden to wear the ecclesiastical dress, to visit the sick, to preach or teach. Protestant schools were destroyed, the funds appropriated to Catholic hospitals, and the children placed under Catholic teachers. If any Huguenot sold his estate, with a view of quitting the kingdom, his lands were confiscated to the crown, and the purchaser received no compensation. If any mayor professed the Protestant faith, he forfeited both his office and his nobility. If any Protestant refused to attend mass, he might be driven thither at the pike's point. It was treason to call Protestantism the "reformed religion," and to win a "convert" was a political no less than an ecclesiastical merit worthy of all praise.

The Dragonades (1685). The mere revocation of the edict of toleration was not sufficient to crush the "schismatic spirit of the Huguenots;" so Louis sent armed expeditions, led by a bishop, through the several provinces of the kingdom, to demand of the non-conformists the abjuration of their faith, and to leave such as proved refractory to be dealt with by the soldiery. As the chief troops employed were dragons, these scandalous persecutions were called *dragonades*.

Louvois [*Lou-vvor*] declared it to be "his majesty's will and pleasure that the greatest rigours should be executed on all those who refused

to adopt the royal religion ; and that all who had the senseless vanity to resist should be punished with the utmost rigour."

When the expedition entered a town, the soldiers were quartered on the Protestants, and gave loose to the most unbounded licentiousness and extravagant waste. They consumed what they pleased ; pillaged, seized, destroyed, and abused without restraint ; and, not content with spoliation, tortured the inmates in a thousand ways, without distinction of age or sex.

Numbers were thrown into dungeons ; numbers who escaped were hunted down like wild beasts ; numbers were gibbeted or sent to the galleys ; and not a few were cut down by the sword. There was no safety but in flight, and this was strictly forbidden. The guards on the frontiers were doubled ; the peasants were ordered to attack the fugitives wherever they found them ; soldiers were dispersed over every part of the nation ; and the strictest orders were sent to those who kept the barriers, to let no one pass without a license.

Notwithstanding this vigilance, some 80,000 managed to quit the country ; 50,000 of whom came to England, and introduced the art of jewellery, the manufacture of silk, and the making of crystal glass, arts hitherto unknown in the island.

The refugees settled in Spitalfields, Soho, and St. Giles ; and many of their descendants live still in the same neighbourhoods ; and follow the same trades.

By this impolitic persecution France lost nearly a million of subjects ; armed the Protestants of Europe against her country ; greatly injured her trade ; and drove to foreign lands many of her most skilful workmen.

In 1723 and 1724 similar persecutions were renewed, and even to the present hour Protestants in France are subject to several annoyances.

FROM THE LEAGUE OF AUGSBURG TO THE PEACE OF RYSWICK.

(1687—1697.)

League of Augsburg (1687). Soon after the revocation of the edict of Nantes [*Narnt*], a powerful confederation, called the *League of Augsburg*, was formed against France by Holland, Germany, Spain, Sweden, and Savoy.

Its object was to compel France to abide by the terms of the treaties of Westphalia and Nimeguen [*Neem-gen*]. By the *former*, the balance of power in Europe was established, and Protestants were placed on an equality with Catholics. By the *latter*, the boundaries of France were settled, and the integrity of Holland secured.

The formation of this league did not escape the king's vigilance ; and he instantly despatched his son with 20,000 men into Germany, to create a diversion.

The Dauphin made a very splendid campaign, in which Philipsburg, Manheim, Spire, Worms, Trèves, and several other places, fell into his hands. The Palatinate of the Rhine was given up to fire and sword; more than 40 towns were burnt to the ground; men, women, and children were left houseless and homeless; and the whole German side of the Rhine was converted into a wilderness to form a frontier to France.

England joins the League (1688). In the meantime, the political events of England disquieted Louis, and his interference forced us to join the League.

Charles II. had been succeeded by his brother James, an avowed Roman Catholic. The Protestants of England associated the Catholic religion with the massacre of St. Bartholomew, the extirpation of the Waldenses, the fires of Smithfield, and the late Dragonades: no wonder, therefore, they were alarmed, and made a resolute stand.

James fled to France, and obtained succours from Louis both of men and money. A battle was fought near the river Boyne, in Ireland; the royalists were utterly defeated, and the crown was transferred from James to William prince of Orange, the most determined enemy of France, and the head of the Augsburg League. His promotion to the crown carried England, of course, into the confederation.

James II. was not formally dethroned, but was declared to have abdicated. He returned to France; and the *grand-monarque* assigned to him the palace of St. Germain, where he lived for the rest of his life.

Peace of Ryswick (1697). France now stood alone against England, Germany, Holland, Spain, and Savoy; and although it must be allowed that she fought bravely and won several brilliant victories, yet the cost of such a struggle could not but be suicidal.

The marshal de Luxembourg was sent into the Netherlands with one army; the celebrated Catinat [*Cat-è-nah*] into Piedmont with another; the duc de Vendôme [*Varn-dome*] into Spain with a third; while the admiral Tourville had to sustain by sea the whole force of the combined fleets of England and Holland.

It would be unprofitable to detail the several successes and reverses of these truly great men. Suffice it to say, that the engagements by land were for the most part successful. By sea, the French were defeated in 1692 off Cape la Hogue [*Höge*]; next year, they won a naval victory over the English and Dutch off Cape St. Vincent. The English and Dutch retaliated, however, by bombarding Dieppe, Havre, St. Malo, Calais, and Dunkirk.

At length, all parties longed for peace. The expenses of the war were felt heavily by all the belligerents, and the famous peace of Ryswick [*Riz'-vik*] was concluded.

By the terms of this treaty, Louis restored all that he had won from Germany and Spain; acknowledged the title of William III. to the crown

of England; destroyed the fortifications of Strasbourg; abandoned the cause of James II.; and, after an enormous waste of life and money, was but too happy to find himself in the same position as he was before the war broke out.

THE WAR OF SUCCESSION (1700—1714).

Claimants to Spain. Louis-le-Grand next embroiled himself with almost all Europe by laying claim to Spain, and sending his grandson Philippe to take possession of it.

It so happened, that Carlos II. of Spain had no child, and four of the crowned heads of Europe had pretty nearly equal rights to be considered his heir: the king of France, the emperor of Germany, the elector of Bavaria, and the king of Savoy. The two latter retired from the contest, and left the field to the two former.

Louis XIV. was the cousin of Carlos, and son-in-law of Felipe IV., whose eldest daughter he had married. The descendants, therefore, of Louis had the highest legal claim; and Carlos had distinctly recognized this right, by leaving the crown to Philippe of Anjou [*Arn-zjoo*], second son of the dauphin.

Leopold I. of Germany argued, that Philippe could not accept the crown, as Louis had renounced all claim to it by the *Treaty of the Pyrenees*. He demanded the kingdom for his second son Karl, whose mother was a daughter of Felipe IV., and father a regular descendant of the emperor Maximilian; besides which, he said, the kingdom of Spain belonged to the house of Austria.

Louis cared very little for these considerations; and his grandson was proclaimed Felipe V. of Spain. Leopold, on the other hand, proclaimed his son king, under the name and title of Carlos III. Both prepared to maintain their claim, and the struggle which ensued is known in history as the "War of the Spanish Succession."

It so happened, that James II. died about this time, and the French immediately acknowledged his son, the Pretender, king of England; though Louis, at the peace of Ryswick [*Riz'-vik*], had formally recognized the title of William III.

This, of course, was a declaration of hostility. The English ambassador was recalled from Versailles, and England joined Holland, Portugal, Savoy, Brandenburg, and Germany, in an alliance against France and Spain.

The war lasted 12 years. The French won the battles of Almanza and Denain; but lost those of Blenheim, Ramillies, Turin, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. Ultimately a treaty of peace was agreed to, and Louis was allowed to accept the throne of Spain for his grandson, who was crowned under the name and title of Felipe V.

The greatest captains of the allied armies were the prince Eugène and duke of Marlborough. The former was a Parisian, his father was count of Soissons [*Swois-sôn'g*]

and mother a niece of cardinal Mazârin. Louis XIV. banished his mother to the Low Countries, an affront which the prince so deeply resented, that he took up arms against his country, and proved one of its most formidable enemies. Prince Eugène was small in stature, with a thin face, and a long nose. He was simple in dress and manner; and indulged profusely in snuff. He was a strict disciplinarian, and a great enthusiast, kind-hearted to his men, and attentive to their wants. His success was due to the promptness of his decision, the rapidity of his marches, and his tact in making the best of present circumstances.

On the *French* side, the most distinguished generals were marshals Catinat and Villars, and the dukes of Vendôme and Brunswick. The last was a natural son of James II.

Hostilities began in Lombardy, when prince Eugène defeated the French in three successive battles in one year (1701).

Battles lost by the French in the War of Succession.

(1) **Blenheim.** On the 13th of August, 1704, the French and Bavarians, to the number of 56,000, drew up in battle array near the village of Blenheim [*Blen'-um*] in Bavaria. Marshal Tallard commanded on the right, and the elector of Bavaria on the left.

The English and their allies amounted to 52,000 men. Their right was under the direction of prince Eugène [*Eu-zjen'*], and their left under the duke of Marlborough.

The English won the victory, which was most complete and decisive. Above 30,000 of the enemy were either slain on the field or drowned in the Danube; 13,000 more, including Tallard himself, were taken prisoners. 120 pieces of cannon, 129 colours, 171 standards, 3600 tents, 300 laden mules, 15 pontoon bridges, and 23 barrels of silver, fell into the hands of the conquerors.

St. Simon [*San See-môn*] says, that Marlborough treated his prisoners, even the humblest of them, with the utmost attention and politeness; and that his modesty did him more honour than even his brilliant victory.

The loss of the victors was only 4,500 killed, and 8,000 wounded or taken prisoners.

The same year England took Gibraltar, on the 24th of July. The French and Spanish, on the 11th of October, tried to wrest it out of our hands, but suffered a severe defeat, their loss being 10,000 against 400 on our side.

(2) **Naval Battle of Malaga (1704).** About a month after the victory of Blenheim [*Blen'-um*], the English fleet, under the command of admiral Rook, who had long been in pursuit of the French squadron, succeeded in bringing it to action off the coast of Malaga, in Spain.

The French armament was under the command of the comte de Toulouse [*côn't de Too-looz*]. The number of vessels on both sides was about equal; and a most obstinate sea-fight was maintained from 10 in the morning till 8 at night.

In the darkness of night the count sheered off, and got away. The loss on our side was 687 killed, and 1632 wounded. That of the French was 3,048 killed or wounded, of which 191 were officers.

(3) **Ramillies** (23rd May, 1706). The next victory gained over the French was near the village of Ramillies [*Ram-è-leze*] in Belgium. The English and their allies were again commanded by the duke of Marlborough; but the prince Eugène [*Eu-zjen*] was not present.

The French were under marshal Villeroy [*Veel-rwor*], and were superior in force; but, having no confidence in their leader, were panic-struck, and a general rout ensued. Their loss was about 4,000 slain, 600 officers, 120 standards, and all their baggage and artillery.

This defeat cost Spain all the Low Countries, and France a considerable part of her northern dominions.

About two months after this victory, the French were obliged to raise the siege of BARCELONA, in Spain. They abandoned 100 pieces of artillery, 150,000 lbs. of powder, 30,000 sacks of flour, 20,000 sacks of oats, and vast numbers of bombs, cannon-balls, and military implements.

(4) **Defeat at Turin** (1706). In the summer of the same year, the French were defeated and put to rout at Turin by prince Eugène [*Eu-zjen*]. The conduct of the French army had been entrusted to La Feuillarde [*Lar Few-è-yard*], a most incompetent and wrong-headed young man, who knew nothing of war.

By this defeat, Spain lost Milan, Mantua, Piedmont, and Naples. and so complete was the rout, that the Franco-Spanish army was driven wholly out of Italy.

(5) **Oudenarde** (11th July, 1708). The army sent to Flanders under the command of the duc de Vendôme [*Varn-dome*], and amounting to 100,000 men, was the last hope of France. Marlborough and prince Eugène came upon them, as they were laying siege to Oudenarde [*Oo'-dè-nard*], in Belgium, and again came off with flying colours.

The duc de Vendôme, alighting from his horse, flew from rank to rank imploring his men to rally, and maintain the honour of France; but without avail. On, on they fled pell-mell, cavalry, infantry, and dragoons. Not a battalion, not a squadron kept together. All was confusion and terror. Whole regiments were cut down, whole regiments threw down their arms and ran for life.

In this action, the French lost 3,000 killed and 7,000 taken prisoners. The road to Paris was now open, and the victors advanced to Versailles.

At the close of the same year the French lost LILLE, which was besieged by the prince Eugène, and taken after an obstinate defence of two months.

State of France. With these enormous losses and expenses, it may be imagined in what a deplorable state was the exchequer. The expenses of the war and extravagance of the court had exhausted everything; the public debt had increased to 82 millions sterling, an enormous amount, considering the value of money at that period;* and

* The National debt of England, at the same time, was less than half this sum.

all sorts of measures had been resorted to for the sake of raising money for present uses ; amongst others, a tax on baptisms and marriages.

These were taxes of the most objectionable kind ; almost all persons evaded them ; children were not baptised at all, and men and women lived together without being married. The government then laid heavy fines upon unbaptised children and unmarried parents ; but this led to sedition, and the exactions were repealed.

To add to the misery, the winter which followed the defeat at Oudenarde [*Oo'-dë-nard'*] was unusually severe, and multitudes died of hunger, or the maladies consequent on insufficient food.

Nobody could any longer pay, because nobody was paid. The whole nation was insolvent. Trade yielded nothing ; confidence was bankrupt ; the realm was exhausted ; all was on the verge of ruin.

Even the troops were not paid. Ministers and generals were wholly unable to cope with these tremendous disasters. Crime went unpunished ; law was a dead letter ; order and discipline were at an end. The present state was frightful, and the future seemed no more hopeful.

Bank failures, insurrections, plots, followed in rapid succession. The inundation of the Loire [*Lwor*] added to the general distress. The king was vilified by placards, songs, and squibs without number. And gangs of several thousands paraded the streets daily, crying in doleful monotony, " Bread ! bread ! "

In this crisis, king, princes, and nobles, at length combined, and agreed to make a personal sacrifice to relieve the pressure of distress. They sent their family plate to be melted down for the use of the state, and substituted crockery in its place.

To continue so ruinous a struggle was thought to be madness ; and the self-conceited king, at length, condescended to sue for peace.

A deputation was sent to Holland to make terms ; but the conditions proposed by the allies were so humiliating, that Louis rejected them with scorn, and resolved to try once more the hazard of the field.

(6) **Malplaquet** (11th Sept., 1710). Flanders was again the scene of operation. Eugène [*Eu-zjen'*] and Marlborough again united. Tournay, in Belgium, was the first place that fell into their hands ; and they next directed their march towards Malplaquet [*Mal-plack'-kay*], to meet the French army under the command of marshal Villars.

The armies on each side consisted of 120,000 choice soldiers ; and though the French fought with the obstinate courage of desperation, their lines were forced, and driven into a retreat.

This was the dearest of all our victories. Our killed and wounded were even greater than those of our adversary. Some say they amounted to 15,000 men ; but the victory was conclusive ; and next

year Douay, St. Venant, and Aire, fell into our hands. This was the last campaign of the duke of Marlborough.

The **State** of the French **Army** at this period was most deplorable. The officers were wholly ignorant of all their duties, except those of mere routine. Luxury had corrupted every one; and the soldier expected to enjoy the same comforts in camp as in the city.

The young officers talked only of play and women; the old ones of feasts and equipages; and the generals wasted more than half their time in writing formal dispatches. Hot dishes and ices, confections and fruits, were served on the march, and even in the trenches. Expense ruined the officers; and though many laws were made to correct the evil, none were ever regarded.

According to a foolish regulation made by the king, whenever the engineers shifted the position of their guns, they were entitled to a fee. The guns, therefore, were for ever being moved from place to place, in order to secure the promised recompense; and nothing succeeded.

Battles won by the French in the War of Succession.

Though the Spanish "War of Succession" was most disastrous to the French, and defeat followed defeat with fatal rapidity, it must not be imagined that they won no victories, and obtained no laurels.

The battles they won in this long struggle were those of Friedlingen [*Frete-ling-en*], Almanza, Villa-viciosa, and Denain.

(1) **Friedlingen** (1702). When the war first broke out, Louis Hector, marquis of Villars, was sent with an army into Germany, and encountered the imperialists at Friedlingen [*Frete-ling-en*] under the command of the prince of Baden.

Villars was the conqueror, though his army was the smaller of the two; and the soldiers saluted him as *Marshal of France* on the field of battle; a title which the king, with his usual good taste, immediately confirmed.

(2) **Almanza** (1707). Their next victory was in the 6th year of the war, after the defeats of Blenheim [*Blen'-um*], Malaga, Ramillies [*Ram-è-leze*], and Turin.

The grandson of Louis XIV. had been driven out of Spain by the allies, and the son of the emperor Leopold had been installed at Madrid under the name of Carlos III. The active and intrepid earl of Peterborough had marched through the whole of Spain, sweeping everything before him, and Catalônia had declared in favour of the new king.

At this crisis of affairs, James Fitz-James, duke of Berwick, entered Spain in the service of the *grand-monarque*, and encountered the earl near Almanza, in New Castile. Victory was with the duke; Felipe

was restored ; and 120 standards, with all the artillery and baggage of the allies, fell into the hands of the conqueror.

(3) **Villa-Viciosa (1710).** The third French victory was after the battle of Malplaquet [*Mal-plack'-kay*], when the nation was in despair. The duc de Vendôme defeated the archduke (Carlos III.) at Villa-Viciosa, in New Castile.

Felipe, the young king of Spain, was present in this engagement, and was so worn out by fatigue, that he threw himself on the ground for a few minutes' sleep. "Sire," said the duke to him, "I will prepare for you the noblest bed that ever monarch reposed upon," and spread beneath a tree the colours which had been taken from the foe.

Louis-Joseph duc de Vendome (1654—1712), great-grandson of Henri IV., was, next to marshal Villars, the greatest general of the age ; but his private character was most infamous and repulsive. He was a great glutton. His bed was always full of dogs. His habits were indescribably filthy. His conduct licentious and indecent. He was graceful in deportment and a good courtier, but insolent, overbearing, and brutal.

He was of ordinary height, rather stout, but vigorous and active. His countenance was noble, his mien lofty, his popularity unbounded. He was, in fact, the idol of the king, the court, and the people. His very vices were admired ; and it was thought an honour to obtain from him even a passing notice.

After the defeat at Oudenarde, he fell into disgrace, mainly through the influence of Madame de Maintenon, his personal enemy ; was banished from court ; and spent the rest of his life in miserable retirement.

Domestic Afflictions. Louis XIV. was now 72 years old, and the troubles of the last twelve years had weighed heavily upon him, and well nigh crushed him. A gleam or two of hope, however, had burst upon the nation since the defeat of Malplaquet [*Mal-plack'-kay*], and partially revived the nation and the king :

(1) The duchess of Marlborough had offended queen Anne, and been dismissed from court in a very rude and peremptory manner. The policy of England shifted ; the nation withdrew from the league, and signed with France a treaty of peace.

(2) Leopold's eldest son had lately died, and his second son Karl (Carlos III.), being heir to the empire, gave up all further claim to the Spanish throne.

(3) On the heel of these good tidings came the victory of Villa-Viciosa, like an angel of promise. The nation began to lift up again the "hands which had hung down, and the feeble knees."

A deep cloud, however, of domestic sorrow passed over the poor old monarch, and his reviving joy was turned into gall. In one year, he lost, by death, his only son Louis the dauphin ; his eldest grandson the duke of Burgundy, a very promising young man, the pupil of Fénelon ; his great-grandson the duke of Brittany, a child five years old, the eldest son of Burgundy ; and the duchess of Burgundy, his mother, a lady beloved by the whole court.

(4) **Denain (1712).** In the midst of these domestic sorrows, the prince Eugène [*Eu-zjen'*] was making immense progress in Flan-

ders, and was on the point of invading France with the view of dethroning the aged monarch, whom he hated.

It was a desperate moment. Louis, although 74 years of age, declared he would lead his army in person against the rebel prince, but was wisely dissuaded from this folly, and sent Villars in his stead.

The two armies met at Denain, near Valenciennes [*Va-larn-sè-enn*]. A most obstinate battle ensued; Villars was conqueror; France was saved; and the allies consented to terms of peace not altogether dishonourable to France.

Treaty of Utrecht (1713). The treaty was signed at Utrecht [*U-treck*], in the Netherlands, by France and Spain on the one hand, and England, Savoy, Portugal, Prussia, and Holland, on the other. The following were the chief provisions: The king's grandson was to be acknowledged king of Spain, but was in no case to succeed to the crown of France. Sicily was to be given to the duke of Savoy, who was to be styled in future *king of Sicily*. And France was to abandon its conquests in the Netherlands; to recognize the elector of Brandenburg as king of Prussia; to resign Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Hudson's Bay to England; to allow England to retain Gibraltar and the island of Minorca; to demolish the fortifications of Dunkirk; and to favour the British succession in the protestant line.

Peace of Radstadt (1714). The emperor of Germany refused to sign this treaty, and continued the war single-handed; but Villars marched against him; took Spire, Worms, Landau [*Larn-dow'oo*], and Freiburg [*Fri-burg*], after which the foolish emperor consented to make peace.

This second treaty, called the "Peace of Radstadt" [*Rart-start*], gave to Germany Naples, Sardinia, Milan, and the Netherlands, all of which were taken from Spain. At the same time, it preserved to France its frontiers.

Thus ended the "War of Succession," which had lasted 12 years; and by its enormous expenses paved the way for the great Revolution, which broke out towards the close of the century.

Death of Louis XIV. (1715). Scarcely was the kingdom freed from this disastrous war, when Louis recommenced his religious persecutions; this time against the Jansenists, a sect of Calvinistic Roman Catholics, who maintained the doctrine of grace, predestination, and non-freedom of the will.

Father Quesnil [*Ka-neel*] published a book of *Moral Reflections on the New Testament*, which favoured these "heretical notions." Louis requested the pope to interfere, and Clement IX. condemned the book and the Jansenists, too, in the famous bull called *Unigenitus*.

In the midst of this contention, and meditating a scheme for the restoration of the Pretender to the throne of England, the old king

breathed his last, in the 77th year of his age, and 72nd of his reign. His last words were, "I thought dying had been more difficult."

Madame de Maintenon, who was 82 years old, retired to the house of St. Cyr [*San Seer*], which she had founded for the education of 300 girls of noble birth, destitute of fortune; and remained there till death. This house, at the revolution, was converted into a military school.

Madame de Maintenon (1635—1719) was the daughter of Monsieur d'Aubigné, and widow of the poet Scarron. Her father was a protestant, but Françoise renounced the reformed religion, and became very bitter against it. She was born in prison, and was extremely poor when she married Scarron, a young man and a cripple, who left her a widow eight years after her espousal. Again she was reduced to great indigence, when the king was persuaded to make her governess to his infant children by Madame de Montespan.

In this capacity she attracted the attention of the *grand-monarque*, who was so infatuated with her intelligence and conversation that he privately married her, and settled on her an estate at Mainténon, from which she derived her name. At her marriage with the king she was nearly 50, though she looked much younger. Her form was full and rounded, her arms white and delicate, her hands soft and tapering, her eyes large and expressive, her general aspect thoughtful and sedate. Louis was three years her junior, loved her with sincerity, trusted wholly to her judgment, and was governed by her will.

To Madame de Maintenon is to be attributed the revocation of the edict of Nantes, the Dragonades, and all the other severe measures of this reign against the protestants and Jansenists, as well as several other impolitic and tyrannical proceedings.

Portrait of Louis XIV. Louis-le-Grand was of small stature, not exceeding 5 feet 2 inches; but added somewhat to his height by wearing very high red-heeled shoes. He was well-proportioned; rather stout, but not corpulent. His countenance was dignified and impressive; and his movements not ungraceful, but theatrical. His hair was a nut-brown, and he wore it long, flowing in curls over his shoulders, like the ancient Franks; and, in the latter part of his reign, adopted a wig.

He had a mellow ringing voice, which gave expression to all he uttered. And there was an unbending pride of deportment whenever he appeared in public, which repulsed familiarity, and seemed to say, "Remember I am the *grand-monarque*!"

His eye was azure blue, mild and clear, but so quick, that it saw, at a glance, if any person were absent who ought to be in attendance; and no king ever kept his courtiers in more servile subjection.

His Character. He had a good natural understanding, but education had done very little to enlarge it. He was good-tempered, but somewhat capricious; extremely selfish and cold-hearted, but easily melted to tears; very industrious and attentive to business, but apt to be influenced by favourites; punctual as a clock, and never excusing the want of it in others.

Gallantry was wrapped up in his nature; yet was he both diffident and delicate in his deportment to women. He was witty, but sombre

and sedate; easily excited, but wholly without one generous affection. His vanity was excessive; and his love of flattery almost beyond belief. He could not bear to hear any one praised except himself; and thought it a personal affront if any one entertained a different opinion to his own.

Etiquette was esteemed by him the first law of civilization. He would fly into a towering passion, and refuse to eat his dinner, if a guest happened to sit in a wrong place, or to violate some convention of his court.

No man could better turn a compliment, or more delicately hint a censure. He had also a peculiar tact in inventing a host of little distinctions, which were eagerly coveted by his courtiers: such as a decoration, an invitation to promenade with him, permission to carry his chamber candlestick, and so on.

He was called *The Great* in the gross flattery of the period in which he lived, but was great neither in talent, courage, fortune, nor discernment. Even in his young days he was mean and selfish, but in his latter days he was a smirking grimacing old dancing-master, moving about his court like a stage-king, rather than a noble-minded independent thinker, the head of a great people.

It is usually said, that he had an intuitive perception of character, and selected his ministers with wonderful discernment. This, however, is a total mistake. He advanced his own natural children to the prejudice of the ancient nobility, and allowed flattery and servility to be passports to his favour.

What could be more monstrous than his remark to Maréchal in justification of his numerous imposts—"All the wealth of my subjects is mine, and when I take it, I take what is mine own."

If royalty consists in etiquette, ceremony, stage-posture, and make-believe; in frowning down those who disregard or are ignorant of conventional rank and rules; in preserving an unapproachable hauteur; and in acting night and day the tragedy-monarch; then Louis XIV. was "every inch a king."

But, if it consists in the love of one's subjects, care for their well-being, a knowledge of the laws, a wise administration, an even-handed justice, and a good example, then Louis XIV. had no right whatever to be called the "great monarch," but should rather have been styled the "great pretension."

The hollow unmeaning courtesy of this reign was carried to a most ridiculous excess. St. Simon gives us several illustrations, *g.e.*—Cardinal d'Estrées had very beautiful teeth, and Louis was one day lamenting to him the inconvenience of having lost his own. "Ah, sire," said the cardinal, "but who is there now that has any?"

On another occasion, the king was walking at Marly with cardinal de Polignac, when it began to rain. The king expressed some anxiety lest the cardinal should be incommoded. "It is nothing, it is nothing. I assure your Majesty," replied the churchman, "the rain of Marly never makes us wet."

Habits of Louis XIV. His valet called him every morning at eight, and his old nurse brought in his head physician, who inquired after his health. Then entered the grand chamberlain and a tribe of courtiers privileged to attend the *levée*.

Before he got out of bed, his great flowing wig was handed to him on a long cane; and, having adjusted it, he proceeded to his toilet. One gentleman held his looking-glass, another his hand-basin, another poured water from the ewer, a fourth held his towels, and others handed to him his several articles of apparel.

The toilet over, he employed himself till dinner in business. He dined in public; and the privilege of seeing him eat was eagerly sought after. When a young man, he was a great eater, like all the Bourbons, and had a rapid digestion; but in his old age he was very abstemious.

The evening he spent in the boudoir of Madame de Maint  non, whom he jocosely called *Madame Solidity*. Here he would again see his ministers, while Madame sat apart reading or working.

Madame de Maint  non always retired to her chamber early, and the king passed the rest of the evening with his children or grandchildren.

At midnight commenced the ceremony of going-to-bed (*coucher*), which was as formal and tedious as the *lev  e*. Thus the king was in public from morning till night, and could never relax for a single instant.

Court of Louis XIV. The court of Louis was the most brilliant and ceremonious that had hitherto existed, and etiquette was insisted on with more than Spanish pertinacity. The ladies emulated each other in grace and elegance, and the gentlemen dressed with a magnificence never before equalled; but all persons farded and painted, as they had done in several preceding reigns.

When any one deserved well of the king, he acknowledged the service by a delicate hint, or gentle sigh; and afterwards sent a marshal's b  ton, a pension, a diamond ornament, or a decoration, as the case might be.

At the same time it cannot be concealed, that Louis and his court were mere "whited sepulchres," fair indeed externally, but within no better than "a cage of unclean birds." Louis himself indulged in the utmost licentiousness, and it is not to be wondered at, that his courtiers entertained a contempt for marriage, a rage for gambling, an indulgence of vice, and a religious hypocrisy flimsily veiled by courtly polish and address. Never were men of trust more venal; never were fraud and swindling so lightly considered; never were "goodly apples so rotten at the core."

In the *second* period of the reign, while the king was under the influence of Madame de Montespan, who loved pomp, show, and diversion, the court was all gaiety, splendour, and amusement.

In the *third* period, while Madame de Maintenon was in the ascendant, it was dull pomp and wearisome ceremony: a Madame Tussaud's exhibition, where every figure is in full costume, in its stated place, and in the most studied position, but where there is neither soul, variety, nor interest.

His receptions, termed *appartements*, were held three times a week, three days were set apart for dramatic entertainments, and Sunday was left free. An "appartement" was an assembly of all the court in the grand saloon of Versailles, from 7 till 10, when the king sat down to table. There was first music, and then billiards, cards, dancing, dominoes, chess, and so on. If any guest required what was not provided, he was at full liberty to order it of the attendants.

Dress. Nothing could exceed the gaud and bad taste of the costume of this reign, at least so far as the male part of the human race is concerned. Fine lace and fine ribbons, cumbersome wigs, and inconvenient shapes were the general characteristics.

The wig was curled and frizzled, and the gentlemen were so afraid of deranging it, that they carried their hats in their hands or under their arms. A snuff-box, looking-glass, and large ivory comb to pass through the periwig, were indispensable appendages.

At court, on promenade, at *tête-à-tête*, and even at meals, gentlemen passed their combs through their periwigs, as dandies at the present day twirl and arrange their moustaches.

The neckcloth was Brussels' or Flanders' lace, tied in a large bow, and terminating in long pendant ends. The shoes were square-toed, short-quartered, with very high red heels; the hat was broad-brimmed and adorned with a feather; the waistcoat was very large and showy; the coat square-cut; the stockings blue or scarlet, with gold or silver *clocks*; and the breeches fastened with rosettes below the knee.

Laws and Institutions. The reign of the "grand monarch" was especially remarkable for its legislative enactments; indeed, it may be said that *administration* was only then created. The Civil Ordinance; the Criminal Ordinance; the Code of Woods, Forests, and Rivers; the Commercial Code, Marine Code, and Colonial Code, were all made in this reign. Duelling was wisely interdicted, and accusations for sorcery and witchcraft legally abolished.

¶ The chief institutions of the reign are the Academy of Inscriptions and Medals, the Academy of Sciences, the Academy of Painting and Sculpture, the Academy of Music, and the School of the Beaux Arts [*Boze-ar*].

The Academy of *Inscriptions and Medals*, the Academy of *Sciences*, and the School of the *Beaux Arts*, together with the *Académie Française* founded by Richelieu, were all incorporated into the "Institute of France" during the Revolution.

Retrospect. The long reign of Louis XIV. was a very chequered one. During the minority of the king, civil war prevailed;

but with the assumption of power by young Louis, a new era commenced; the military successes of his generals were brilliant, and the kingdom was extended almost to its present boundaries. Villars, Turenne, Vauban [*Vo-bar'*], Luxembourg, Catinat [*Cat-ž-nah'*], Vendôme, and Boufflers [*Boo-flay*], sustained the military glory of the nation; by the far-sighted policy of the minister Louvois [*Loo-vvor*], a well-organized army and newly-created navy made its power formidable to neighbouring states; and by the fostering care of Colbert [*Côl-bair*], the progress of the people in the arts of peace was secured.

In the third and last period of the reign, the oppressive war-taxes, the prodigality of the court, the luxurious lives of the clergy, and the absolutism of the aged monarch, undermined the foundations of national prosperity and freedom; and, at his death, the state was left trammelled with a debt of 168 millions sterling,* and his youthful heir succeeded to a heritage whose glory was tarnished, and whose stability was shaken to its very foundation.

FEMALE INFLUENCE IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

In the great stirring times of Louis XIV. and his successor, a series of women exercised an almost unlimited power. As women of the world they ruled society; as favourites of the crown they ruled the state; and as patronesses of the fine arts they held in their hands the empire of letters. Ministers and generals were appointed or recalled according to their wishes; members were thrust into the academy in compliance with their recommendations; and authors were read or neglected, as these arbitrary dictators gave their fiat. Never was society so decorous, never were men and women more thoroughly corrupt. Napoléon put an end to this fatal influence, and it is devoutly to be hoped that it may never be revived.

The political influence of women in France began with the three queen-regents, Catherine de Médicis, Marie her niece, and Anne of Austria.

In the minority of Louis XIV., when the *Fronde* War broke out, Anne of Austria was opposed to the haughty Mdle. de Montpensier [*Môn-parn-sě-a*] and the duchess of Longueville, who made Condé and Turenne their tools.

When peace was restored, the celebrated soirées of the Hôtel Rambouillet [*Rarm-boo-ž-ya*], presided over by Julie d'Angennes [*Darn-žjenn*], Mdle. de Scudéri, Madame de Sévigné [*Sa-veen-ye*], and Madame de Lafayette [*Lar-fy-ett*], gave a special character to the literature of the day.

Later still, the lively but profligate Madame de Montespan, and her sedate successor, Madame de Maintenon, governed France under the name of the *Grand Monarque*; so that if Louis XIV. could boast that "he was the state" (*l'état c'est moi*), his successive favourites could with equal truth affirm, "I am the king." The administrative round was thus: The royal mistresses governed the *king*, the king *Versailles*, and Versailles *France*. Through the despotic Louis, these gifted, but far from virtuous ladies, impressed their character on the whole nation. To please Mdle. de la Vallière [*Varl-le-air*] the chivalrous amusements of the Middle Ages were resumed; satire and intrigue were in vogue under the palmy days of Madame de Montespan; and rigid devotion, dulness, and ascetism, under the sway of Madame de Maintenon.

* That of England was 54 millions.

In this last period, heavy reverses, lost battles, and national poverty, cast a deep gloom over the court. Vigils, fasts, and penances, took the place of revels. The king no longer delighted in the stately tragedies of Racine [*Rar-sen*], or gay comedies of Molière [*Mo-le-air*], but sat apart in his chamber between his confessor and Madame de Maintenon, feeble, querulous, and down-hearted, but still despotic and ceremonious.

The court and nation rebelled against this dulness, and longed for a new and younger reign. Madame du Maine, wife of his eldest legitimated son, made her residence at Sceaux [*Sko*] the resort of the wits of the day. The young duke of Orleans, gathering round himself the licentious nobles, carried on with them the grossest orgies, in which the duchess of Berry began to take a bad pre-eminence. And ladies, who had nothing better to do, turned their mansions into gambling houses, from which they derived a large but infamous revenue.

But the influence of women was principally felt through the literary portion of society. In the evening soirée, many a political dogma or startling novelty might be uttered, which would have been punished by the Bastille under other circumstances. Madame du Maine delighted in these literary re-unions, and in the saloons of old Ninon de l'Enclos [*Larn-clo*] might be seen J. B. Rousseau the poet, the gay abbé de Chaulieu [*Sho-lew*], the philosophic Fontenelle, Châteauneuf [*Shar-to-nuff*] the ancient admirer of the hostess, and the child Arouet [*Ar-roo-a*] whose name was afterwards to be changed to that of Voltaire.

At length, the tedious reign of the "grand monarque" drew to a close. As the old king lay on his death-bed, the courtiers deserted the royal palace to gather round the duke of Orléans, or the duke of Maine; and even Madame de Maintenon abandoned her royal "husband," and retired to St. Cyr [*San Seer*]. Louis vainly asked for her; she was gone; and he who had filled Europe with his fame, breathed his last in the presence of a few menials only.

VERSAILLES.

Louis-le-Grand lived very little in Paris; his court was at Versailles. Under the direction of Mansard and Lenôtre he transformed the hunting lodge of his father, into one of the largest palaces of Europe, and had the Trianon built as a sort of breathing place, whither he might retire when he wished to relax a little from the severity of state.

For a century, this château was the ordinary residence of royalty, but Louis-Philippe, in 1830, converted it into a vast national museum.

In the reign of the *Great King*, it was, indeed, a lordly abode; not beautiful, but gorgeous and immense. Its decorations were most lavish, but there was a wonderful want of symmetry, and no provision for domestic comfort.

Here were collected the rarest works from every quarter of the globe. Every chamber flamed with groups cast in solid gold. The designs were from the pencil of Lebrün; and the execution employed 1000 of the most skilful hands in France.

The gardens, laid out by Lenôtre, were crowded with statues and fountains. The fountain of *Neptune* by Adam is still considered the most effective in the world.

The château of Versailles, the *Hampton Court of France*, is now chiefly remarkable for its collection of beautiful statues and sculptures relating to the national history. Here all the worthies of France, sculptured in marble, are collected together.

The walls are covered with paintings, some of which are of great value, but the larger number are representations of battles and sieges connected with French history.

PARIS.

During this long reign, Paris was embellished with a vast number of new edifices. The monastic establishments, which already occupied a large space,

became more numerous every year, so that, by the close of the reign, they covered more than half the city.

The magnificent Hôtel-des-Invalides was built and founded for old and disabled soldiers.

The Observatory was erected; the triumphal arches of St. Martin and St. Denis [*San-Dneé*]; great additions were made to the Tuileries and Louvre; the gardens of the Tuileries, like those of Versailles, were laid out by Lenôtre; the Quays, the Place-du-Carrousel, the Place-des-Victoires, and the superb Place-de-Vendôme, were all completed in this reign.

The Champs Elysées [*Sharns A-lee-za*], previously ploughed fields, were planted and converted into a public promenade. Stone bridges were substituted for wooden ones. The old city walls were demolished, and the present beautiful Boulevards [*Bool-var'*] formed on their site (*see p. 201*).

HISTORY OF THE FRENCH DRAMA (*continued from page 130*).

PART III. TRAGEDY AND COMEDY.

The drama, properly so called, was born and brought to its highest perfection in the reign of Louis XIV. It is true, that some writers both of tragedy and comedy had lived before, but Corneille [*Cor-nay-e*] may be considered the Father of French Tragedy, and Molière [*Mo-lë-air*] of comedy, while Racine [*Rah-seen'*], a contemporary, completed the dramatic Triad.

Jodelle (1532—1573), one of the Pleiad poets, was in reality the first writer of tragedies and comedies in France. His tragedies are formed on the Greek models, with choruses; but, as the pendency of the Ronsard-school gave way, these dramas fell into neglect.

Garnier [*Gar-në-a*] (1545—1610) followed Jodelle, and adopted the same model, but is very superior to his predecessor, especially in declamation and passion. In his "*Hippolytus*" there is a description of a foreboding dream of exquisite beauty, equal if not superior to anything in Racine.

Mairet [*My-ray*] (1604—1686) was the first to write French tragedies according to the modern fashion. Of his 12 dramas, the best is *Sophonisbë*, imitated from an Italian play of the same title.

Rotrou [*Ro-troo*] (1609—1650) may be called the real *Founder of the French theatre*, and Corneille pays him the compliment of styling him his father. He greatly improved the scenery and general conduct of the stage. Though very superior to any of his predecessors, his style is heavy and rugged, and his situations more romantic than tragic. His best tragedies are *Wenceslas* and *Chosroës*.

The Three Unities. It so happened, that Corneille [*Cor-nay-e*] appeared, while the star of Richelieu was still in the ascendant; and, as Richelieu had founded the Academy, to offend the Academy would have been suicidal.

Now the Academy had thought proper to pin its faith to Aristotle, the Greek philosopher. And Aristotle has laid it down as a rule, that every tragedy, properly constructed, should contain only one catastrophe; be limited to one scene; and be circumscribed in action to a single day. These canons are called the *Three Dramatic Unities*.

In consequence of his connection with Richelieu, Corneille [*Cor-nay-e*] had to comply with these dogmatical rules; and from that day to this, to transgress them has been considered, in France, a literary heresy.

Addison's *Cato* is a good specimen of a French tragedy. The one catastrophe is the death of Cato; the one scene the palace of Utica; and the whole action is limited to a single day. Shakespeare's dramas violate all the unities, and furnish a good argument against their desirability. Take, for example, "*Macbeth*." We have four catastrophes, viz., the death of Duncan, the

murder of Banquo, the death of lady Macbeth, and the death of Macbeth. The same play shifts its scene six or eight times, from Forres to Inverness, from Inverness to England, from England to Dunsinane, from the heath to the castle, and from the palace to the camp. So in regard to time, the action of Macbeth extends over eight years.*

Pierre Corneille (1606—1684), generally called "Le Grand Corneille," was born at Rouen [*Roo-on'g*], where his father was an advocate.

The first seven of his plays are cold and severe, though their versification is elegant, and their style dignified. Of these, "*Medæa*" [*Medee*], a declamatory drama in imitation of Seneca, is the best known.

Then followed the "*Cid*," which was received with tumultuous applause, and is still considered his master-piece. Here he gave full scope to his imagination, and all Paris rang with his applause. Richelieu, however, was displeased, he was jealous of this applause, and induced the Academy to condemn the play as loose and Spanish; so Corneille [*Cor-nay-e*] had to confine himself, in future, more severely to the Greek models.

His "*Horatii*" was the first drama in which the plot was his own creation. "*Cinna*" is generally considered by French critics, his master-piece, and his "*Polyeuctus*" [*Polyeucte*] shares with it the palm of praise. All these are first-rate. The rest of his 33 dramas, except, perhaps, the "*Death of Pompey*" and "*The Liar*" (his best comedy), possess but little merit.

Corneille [*Cor-nay-e*] is most at home in portraying the proud, severe, ambitious, and terrible Romans. Tyrants and conquerors never sat to a painter of greater skill. His style is majestic and his sentiments profound; but he not unfrequently lapses into bombast, and is decidedly deficient in tenderness and in the power of moving the passions.

Racine (1639—1699) was the favourite tragic poet of the court. He began to write when the unities were undisputed, and made no effort to disturb them.

In delineating the passion of love, in tenderness, softness, and elegance, no French author approaches him; but he could never overawe his audience like Corneille [*Cor-nay-e*]. The two were the exact opposites of each other: Racine is strong where Corneille is feeble, and weak where his predecessor shows greatest vigour. Racine's two best tragedies, "*Phædra*" [*Phédre*] and "*Athalie*" [*Athelie*] were both condemned. The latter was composed for the private performance of the ladies of St. Cyr [*San-Seer*], and in breadth, elegance, and severe grandeur, has no equal.

Crebillon (1674—1762) is termed the *Æschylus of France*, for the strength and vigour of his characters. His great forte was in portraying the passions of rage and terror. His best tragedy is "*Rhadamistus*" [*Rhadamiste*].

¶ Moliere† (1622—1673), the son of an upholsterer, if not the father of French comedy, was certainly the greatest comic writer of modern times. The theatre was new in the French capital, and he raised it at once to its highest glory.

His model was the Greek Menander, whom Terence imitated; but his rich fund of comic humour, is no where more conspicuous than in those light pieces written on the plan of the Italian masked comedy, in which he has introduced the jealous old pantaloon and the knavish meddling servant.

* The French not content with the three Greek unities, have forged for themselves a fourth, the *Unity of Uniformity*. A play, say they, must be written throughout in the same vein, a tragedy must be all tragedy, a comedy all comedy, a farce all farce. Hence their valets, maid-servants, and rustics speak, in tragedy, in stilted heroics, and their kings and queens in comedy fool-it like buffoons. Shakespeare's *grave diggers* in "*Hamlet*," *nurse* in "*Romeo and Juliet*," and *fool* in "*King Lear*," are, in my opinion, more true to nature, and therefore in better taste.

† His proper name was Jean-Baptiste Poquelin, but he assumed the name by which he is now universally known.

Before the time of Molière [*Mo-le-air*], French comedy found its resources in buffoonery alone, or in the bustle of intrigue, escape, and disguise. Molière aimed at higher game. He studied man for the purpose of attacking folly. And his comedies, like those of Aristophānēs, may be termed photographic portraits of the age in which he lived.

Few satirists have confined their wit to such legitimate objects; and few have seen it crowned with more signal success. Female vanity, learned pedantry, unreasonable jealousy, coquetry, coxcombry, slander, quackery in medicine, knavery in law, and false wit, were unmercifully castigated by him; and his satire did much to improve his countrymen in these matters.

Molière's great excellence is delineation of character. His plots are often brought about too precipitately, and his dialogues are occasionally dull and prosy.

He died in harness, having ruptured a blood-vessel, while acting in his own "Imaginary Invalid." The archbishop of Paris refused him Christian burial; but the king procured him a private interment in a chapel attached to St. Eustache.

His master-pieces are "The Misanthrope;" "The Hypocrite," better known as *Le Tartuffe*; "The Doctor in his own Despite" (*le Médecin malgré lui*); "The Blunderer" (*l'Etourdi*); "Ridiculous Affectations" (*les précieux Ridicules*); "The Blue Stockings" (*les Femmes Savantes*); and "The Imaginary Invalid" (*le Malade Imaginaire*). His regular comedies are all confined within the law of unities, and are finished with great care.

Regnard [*Ren-yar'*] (1655—1709) ranks next to Molière [*Mo-le-air*] as a writer of French comedies. His best pieces are "The Gambler" [*le Joueur*], "The Distracted" [*le Distrait*], "The Follies of Love" [*les Folies Amoureuses*], and the "Universal Testator" [*le Légataire universel*].

After him, the comic authors of France abandoned the track pointed out by their great original, as if in despair; and their productions are for the most part, cramped, limited, and tame.

Destouches [*Day-toosh'*] (1680—1754) is the third best writer of comedies, if, indeed, he ought not to take precedence of Regnard [*Ren-yar'*]. Inferior to Molière [*Mo-le-air*] in truth and sentiment, he is superior to him in plot, stage effect, and decorum. He had also the rare art of combining deep pathos with comic humour.

His best comedies are "The Ingrate" [*l'Ingrat*], "The Irresolute" [*l'Irrésolu*], "The Spendthrift" [*le Dissipateur*], "The Philosopher Married" [*le Philosophe Marié*], "The Slanderer" [*le Médisant*], and "The Braggart" [*le Glorieux*]. The last two are his master-pieces (*see p. 409*).

Murphy's *Know Your Own Mind* and *All in the Wrong* were borrowed from Destouches.

HISTORY OF FRENCH POETRY (continued from page 185).

PART III. AGE OF LOUIS XIV.

The reign of Louis XIV. was once considered the golden age of poetry in France. Everything at this time concurred to impress upon it the stamp of stateliness, polish, and courtier-like adulation. The monarchy had been consolidated by the firm hand of Richelieu, who was not insensible to the claims and importance of literature.

The most imposing shape in which it appeared was the dramatic, which reached its perfection, towards the close of the reign, in Corneille [*Cor-nay-e*], Racine [*Rah-seen*], and Molière [*Mo-le-air*].

It cannot be said, in any other department, of poetry that the reign of Louis XIV. was the Augustan age; indeed, with two exceptions (La Fontaine and Boileau), we find only second-rate talent. It is true that the names of

Chaulieu [*Sho-lew*] and Jean-Baptiste Rousseau are freshly remembered, but it is no less true that their poems are wholly neglected.

La Fontaine (1621—1695) was the reviver of the old naïve style of Marot [*Mar-ro*], though with a degree of polish and grace wholly unknown to the elder poet. Nothing more elegant, more simple, more full of archness and keen observation, has ever been produced, than his "Fables."

In habits and manners, La-Fontaine was absent-minded and ingenuous as a child. He knew nothing of the value of money, and was wholly unable to take charge of his own affairs. In society he was heavy, and, like Corneille, without conversational powers.

Boileau (1636—1711), called by Voltaire the *Solon of Parnassus*, is the Alexander Pope of France, the very opposite of La-Fontaine, but no less pleasing and great. His principal charm is, that he awakens a calm emotion of intellectual satisfaction.

Racine [*Rah-seen*] represents the tender and voluptuous side of French manners and character, during the age of the *Grand Monarque*. La-Fontaine embodies the easy tone of moral indifference, and the *malice* masking itself under the disguise of simplicity. But Boileau [*Boi-lo*], arrayed in a dignified and philosophical dress, presents to us its good sense and sagacity, its perception of the eccentric and ridiculous, its love of decency, order, and decorum.

In his *Lutrin* a comic epic in 6 cantos, he displays a considerable degree of invention and caustic wit. He was wholly unable to soar to the higher regions of poetry, and never attempted it except in his most unfortunate ode *On the Taking of Namur*, so unmercifully parodied by Prior. But in his own proper sphere of moral censorship, or mock heroic, or didactic poetry, he has no equal in Europe, if we except Pope.

Of his 12 "Satires," the best are the 8th and 9th, especially the latter [*à son esprit*], the refined polish and cutting irony of which are inimitable. To his honour be it said, that malice never points his wit; he is always pleasant and gay, but never cruel.

His 12 "Epistles" indicate a riper genius than his satires. Their versification has more ease and grace; the thoughts are very vigorous, and the truths well stated. The one *To Racine* is the finest.

His "Art of Poetry" is an exquisite performance, wholly unequalled in the whole range of didactic poetry; and his "Letters" are valuable, as they contain a large portion of the literary history of the time.

Boileau [*Boi-lo*] was high-minded and generous, impulsive and warm-hearted. His most cherished companions were Molière, Racine, and La-Fontaine. His influence on French history has been immense, and on the whole beneficial.

Chaulieu (1639—1720) was the *Tom Moore* of France, generally called the "Anacreon of the Temple," from the place where he lived. He is the most voluptuous of all their poets, and, like the Roman Horace, is especially noted for his gaiety of spirit and charming dash of good-humoured philosophy. His best poems are those on *Death*, *Retirement*, and *Solitude*.

Jean-Baptiste **Rousseau** (1671—1741), the son of a Paris shoemaker, was reckoned, at one time, the best ode writer of France, and was highly lauded for "sublimity," but he is now considered destitute of genuine inspiration, though the harmony of his style cannot be gainsaid. In his high and palmy days, J. B. Rousseau had the contemptible meanness to disown his own father, when the old man came, on one occasion, to congratulate him in public.

Voiture was the author of *Urania*, and Benserade of *Job*, the two most famous sonnets in the language. Blot was the great song-writer, whose lampoons against Mazarin in the *Fronde War* were so immensely popular. Mazarin at length purchased his silence by a pension (see p. 41)

PULPIT ORATORS OF FRANCE.

The age of Louis XIV. was wholly unrivalled in pulpit eloquence. Bourdaloue [*Boor-da-loo*], Bossuet [*Bos-su-a*], Fléchier [*Fla-she-a*], and Massillon, were never equalled in this branch of literature. Mirabeau [*Me-rah-boo*] and Foy, the two great political orators of France, will be noticed hereafter.

Bossuet (1627—1704), called the “Eagle of Meaux” [*Mo*], from the name of his see, was sublime, pathetic, animated, fluent, and grand. His *Funeral Orations* are wholly unequalled, especially those on the duchess of Orléans and the Great Condé.

Louis XIV. appointed him preceptor to the Dauphin; and it was for this young prince that he wrote his *Discourse on Universal History*, a masterly production, the object of which is to trace the hand of God in all the leading events of history.

Bourdaloue (1632—1704), called the “*Founder* of Christian eloquence,” for argument, method, and depth of thought, stands unrivalled. Simple among the simple, and a dilectitian among the educated, he was a universal favourite. His best orations are his “Lent” sermons.

Flechiér (1632—1710), bishop of Nismes [*Ncem*], and called the French “Isocrätès,” was florid, antithetical, and elegant in style. His sentences are very harmonious; his language pure and choice; his thoughts noble, but not lofty; his eloquence polished, but not animated. His best productions are his *Funeral Orations*, and of these, the one pronounced over marshal Turenne is his master-work.

Massillon, bishop of Clermont [*Clair-môn*], (1663—1742), called the “Cicéro” of France, was eloquent, sweet, insinuating, harmonious, and often deeply pathetic. Bossuet [*Bos-su-a*] was more like Demosthénès. He had more sublimity, more ardour, more “drive;” but Massillon had more grace, more art, more pathos.

Massillon published 100 sermons, of which his “Lent” lectures, and his sermons on *Almsgiving* and *The Day of Judgment* are the best. The conclusion of this last is sublime and harrowing. Of his funeral orations, his best is on “Louis XIV.”

The great fault of Massillon is that his sermons are too much divided and subdivided.

Fenelon (1651—1715), archbishop of Cambray, and the preceptor of the duke of Burgundy, was no orator like the preceding, but has established an undying fame by his prose epic, called *Telemächus*, universally admired for its elegance, simplicity, and happy choice of words; it was, however, by no means pleasing to the great king, as it was too much like a satire on his own government: *Sesostris* being supposed to represent Louis XIV.; *Calypso*, Madame de Montespan; *Protesilaüs*, Louvois; and *Eucharis*, Mdle. de Fontanges.

Mons. de Cambray greatly offended the “church” by a work called *Maxims of the Saints*, in defence of Madame Guyon’s system of *Quietism*. Bossuet [*Bos-su-a*] entered the lists in defence of “orthodoxy;” the pope was appealed to; the book of *Maxims* was condemned; and Fénelon had to read from his own pulpit the ecclesiastical censure.

In the same reign lived Père La Chaise, the king’s confessor; Abbé de Rancé, the great reformer of *La Trappe*, and founder of the order called *Trappists*; Quesnel, famous for his *New Testament with Moral Reflections*, in 8 vols, highly recommended by Dr. Adam Clarke; De Sacy, the translator of the Bible into French; and Madame Guyon, the mystic, celebrated for her system called *Quietism*, which was favoured by Fénelon and Madame de Maintenon.

HISTORY OF FRENCH ROMANCE AND NOVELS.

PART I. ROMANCE.

Romance is a fictitious narrative, the interest of which turns upon marvellous and uncommon incidents. The earliest were written in verse, and belong to the subject of poetry. Prose romances have had three epochs, the pastoral, the national, and the historical.

(1) **Pastoral** romances belong especially to the 17th century. They originated with Honoré D'Urfé (1567—1625), whose "*Astrea*" was, for a time, immensely popular, and gave birth to a host of imitations, the best of which are "*Cyrus*" and "*Clelia*," by Mdlle. Scudéri (1607—1701); "*Cassandra*" and "*Cleopatra*," by La Calprenède [*Cal-pra-ned*] (1610—1663); and one or two by Gomberville [*Gôm-ber-veel*].

Nothing on earth can be more ridiculous than these compositions. All the heroines are models of beauty and perfection; all the heroes live only for love; and all the incidents are brought about through the whims or charms of the heroine acting on the crazy understanding of her lover. The heroes express their passion in frigid bombast, and the ladies receive their declarations with freezing prudery. Yet this fashion had its date, and that a pretty long one.

(2) The romance of **National Manners** belongs to the 18th century, and originated with the *Gil Blas* of Le Sage (1668—1747). The *Moral Tales* of Marmontel, and the *Modern Quixote* by Marivaux, are very far inferior to *Gil Blas*, but not wholly devoid of merit.

Comic romance would hardly require mention, except to introduce the name of the "poet" **Scarron** (1610—1660), the witty cripple, who brought on a stroke of paralysis, in the 27th year of his age, by his extremely licentious life; and, when he was 42, married Mdlle. d'Aubigné [*O-be-nay*], who was left a widow in the course of eight years, and was afterwards privately married to Louis XIV., with whom she lived under the name of Madame de Maintenon.

After his marriage, Scarron was one of the most noted characters of Paris; and his house was the centre of all the wit and beauty of the day. There, in his elegant apartments, would be found Mon. le Coadjuteur, the sub-prelate of Paris; Ménage [*Ma-narje*], and Balzac the letter-writer; Bussy-Rabutin [*Rar-bu-tah'n*], so well-known for his *Histoire Amoureuse des Galles*; Chapelin, the author of *La Pucelle*, an epic, enormously popular at the time, though now wholly neglected; the abbot of St. Réal, from whose histories Otway has taken his famous tragedies of *Don Carlos* and *Venice Preserved*; Jean de la Blot, the greatest song-writer of the age; Mairet [*My-ra*] and Rotrou [*Ro-troo*], the dramatists; and Voiture, the author of the celebrated sonnet called "*Urania*."

There, too, would be assembled Mdlle. Paulet [*Po-la*], the lady whom Henri IV. (after he had called on Sully) was going to visit, when he was assassinated. She was still handsome, and was called *La lionne*. There, too, would be the duchess of Chevreuse, the queen's favourite; Mdlle. de Scudéri and her brother, the joint authors of "*Cyrus the Great*;" Jerome Bignon [*Bin-yô'n*], author of notes on "*Marculphus*;" and a host of others, famous for their wit or beauty, eccentricity or learning.

Amidst this crowd of visitors, the little cripple would wheel himself about in his easy chair; his roguish eye sparkling with fun; laughing, paying compliments, scattering wit and satire, and scratching himself all the while with an ivory wand.

Historical Romance had its birth in the 19th century, and Alexandre Dumas, a recent author, is by far the most prolific of this class of novelists.

* *Marculphus*, was a monk of the 17th century, well-known for a work entitled *Formularies*, or forms of forensic proceedings, legal instruments, charters, &c.

The taste, however, for the marvellous has gradually given way to domestic fiction, and *novels* have taken the place of Romances.

GALLAND, in the reign of Louis XIV., introduced into Europe that curious collection of tales, called *The Arabian Nights' Entertainments* (see p. 430).

HISTORY OF PAINTING IN FRANCE.

PART I. THE ITALIAN AND MIXED SCHOOL.

¶ The earliest French painters were a branch of the *Florentine* school. JEAN COUSIN (1492—1570), a pupil of Leonardo da Vinci [*Vin-che*] was the first oil-painter of any note, and his best piece is the *Last Judgment*; but ✓ NICOLAS POUSSIN [*Poo-sah'n*] (1594—1665) is by far the most eminent French artist of that school.

Poussin was recalled from Rome by Louis XIII. to paint the gallery of the Louvre, and had apartments assigned him in the palace; but the jealousy of his contemporaries so disgusted him, that he returned to Italy, where Louis XIV. regularly remitted to him his pension.

His best pieces are the *Bacchanalian Dance*, the *Deluge*, the *Death of Germanicus*, and the *Triumph of Flora*.

There is a pathos and sublimity of expression in all his compositions, with wonderful attention to costume. No artist ever surpassed him in elegance, correctness, force, and perspicuity. His landscapes are admirable, and his familiarity with classic customs gained for him the name of the "Intellectual artist."

¶ With Nicolas Poussin [*Poo-sah'n*] ends the first or Florentine school of painting in France, and with VOUET [*Voo-a*] (1582—1649), his contemporary, begins the second or Italian-French school, which bears the same relationship to the former, as Sophocles does to Æschylus. The Florentine school, like Æschylus, represented men and women as human gods and goddesses; the Italian-French, like Sophocles, drew them as human beings, but perfect of their kind.

Vouet [*Voo-a*] had a large number of pupils of great reputation, the chief of whom were Lesueur, Lebrun, and Pièrre Mignard* [*Min-yar'*], called the "Roman," from his long residence in Rome.

Mignard's best pieces are the *Virgin and Child with a bunch of grapes* and *St. Cecilia*.

Lesueur (1617—1655), called the French "Raffaël," was decidedly the ablest painter of the century, though his works were by no means appreciated in his life-time. He approached his great model nearer than any other imitator, especially in the character of his heads, the arrangements of his draperies, and the general style of his compositions. His paintings, however, are deficient in light and shade [*Chiùro-oscùro*], in consequence of which, they look flat and transparent.

His chief pieces are the *Life of Bruno* in 22 pictures, in the Carthusian convent of Paris; *Paul Preaching at Ephesus*; and the *Gentiles Burning their Proscribed Books*.

✓ Lebrun (1619—1690), called the "Learned Painter," from the extreme accuracy of his costumes, was a pupil of Nicolas Poussin [*Poo-sah'n*]. He was extremely jealous of Lesueur, and had the bad taste to express his satisfaction openly at the early death of his rival. His master-pieces are the *five battles of Alexander*, the engravings of which have immortalized Audran [*O-drar'*].

Other painters, of this age whose names stand out with considerable prominence, are JOUVENET [*Zjoov-nay*] (1647—1707), called the "Caracci" of

* Mignard had a daughter of surpassing beauty, whose form and features are repeated in all the historical pictures of this great artist.

France, who was paralysed on the right side, and painted with his left hand. His best pieces are *Esther before Ahasuerus*, the *Miraculous Draft of Fishes*, and the *Descent from the Cross*.

RIGAUD [*Rego*] (1659—1743), the “Van Dyck” of France, who copied nature so minutely that he may be called the founder of the “Pre-Raphaelites.”

And **Lemoine** (1688—1737), with whom this school of painting closes. His *Apotheosis of Hercülès*, fixed to the ceiling of the “Salon d’Hercule” [*Dair-cule*], at Versailles, contains 142 figures, and is the best “fresco” of Paris.

Under Louis XV. VANLOO and BOUCHER [*Boo-sha*] degraded the art of painting to the lowest state of insipidity; VIEN regenerated it a little; but was soon superseded by David [*Dav-edé*], who founded the third or Statuesque School (*see p. 350.*)

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

(*Not included in the preceding sketches.*)

It will not be practicable to give even a list of the names of all those who distinguished themselves in this long reign. The sketches given above contain brief notices of the most celebrated poets, pulpit-orators, novelists, and artists, and all that can now be done is to subjoin a few other celebrities, who cannot be classed under any of those heads.

Moreri (1643—1680) was the author of an *Historical and Geographical Dictionary*, which, since his death has been enlarged to 10 times its original size, but still bears his name.

Bayle (1647—1706), the “Father of modern Scepticism,” was the author of an *Historical and Critical Dictionary*, avowedly supplementary to Moreri’s work, but, in reality, a medium of conveying a host of curious information, critical remarks, facts, and traditions, which he had gathered together. In this Dictionary, only such articles are selected, as enabled the compiler to introduce digressions by way of note or comment. The work is very profound and ingenious, but too prolix and far too suggestive of doubts. It exercised an immense influence over the literature and philosophy of the continent, and may be regarded as the parent of the Encyclopædists which inundated France in the next century.

Petau [*Pe-to*] (1583—1652) was a universal genius, who had an accurate knowledge of all the most important living and dead languages, and a deep acquaintance with all the known arts and sciences. He has left behind a work on the *Synchronisms of Ancient History*, to which all subsequent writers on the same subject are deeply indebted.

Huet [*You-a*] (1630—1721), one of the preceptors of the dauphin, was the editor of the *Delphin Classics*, which ran to 62 volumes, and took 22 years to complete.

Menage [*Ma-narge*] (1613—1692) was another man of profound learning, especially famous for etymology. He has left works on the derivations both of French and Italian words.

LETTER WRITERS.

There were three letter-writers in this reign, who raised this part of polite literature to an independent position, Voiture, Balzac, and Madame de Sévigné [*Sa-veen-ye*].

Voiture (1598—1648) enjoyed a prodigious reputation as a letter-writer. His letters exhibit a fair quantity of wit, but more pun and play on words. The allusions are often forced; and though there is much that sparkles, the style is cold and lifeless. A letter from Voiture was at one time a passport into the first circles of society.

Balzac (1596—1655), called the “Solon of French Prose,” was one of the authors who mainly contributed to the formation of the French language.

His *Letters* introduced a harmony and elegance into French prose wholly unknown before. They are in style everything that could be desired, but simplicity and nature are sacrificed to polish and refinement. So great was the furor after these two writers, that every gentleman in France of any pretension to wit or eminence made it a point of duty to obtain at least one letter from each of them, to hand about amongst his fashionable acquaintances.

Madame de **Sevigne** (1626—1696) is still more celebrated than either of the other two for her *Letters*, chiefly addressed to her daughter. In point of style, elegance, and polish, they are fully equal to those of her great contemporaries, while they are infinitely superior to them in nature, animation, affection, and lively sallies of sentiment and court scandal. In a word, the “*Letters*” of Madame de Sévigné [*Sa-veen-ye*] are models of epistolary literature.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

Marshal **Vauban** [*Vo-bar'n*] (1633—1707), the greatest military engineer that France ever produced, was the life and soul of all the sieges of this reign. He carried the art of fortifying, attacking, and defending towns, to a degree of perfection wholly unknown before. He fortified above 300 existing citadels; erected 33 new ones; had the principal direction of 53 sieges; and was present at 143 engagements.

It was Monsieur de Vauban [*Vo-bar'n*] who first devised what are termed *Parallels* in sieges: that is, trenches parallel with the outline of the fortress. Another of his inventions is the *Cavalier*, an elevation of earth situated in the gorge of a bastion, with a parapet and embrasures. The third is the *Ricochet* Battery*, with what is called in gunnery *Ricochet firing*: that is, firing guns and mortars in sieges with small charges, and just so much elevated as to clear the parapet, and roll along the opposite rampart. This is very destructive, as the shot or shell passes along a great space almost upon the ground, destroying all that it encounters. He also changed the entire direction of *Saps*, or the method of approaching fortified places by trenches, &c.

Vauban has left several works behind, the principal of which are a *Treatise on Attack and Defence*; *Leisure Hours*, a mass of useful matter; a work on *Fortifications*; and another called the *French Engineers*.

He was a man of very independent spirit, great humanity, and a true patriot. Of all the towering geniuses of this long reign, none exceeded Sabastian de Vauban [*Vo-bar'n*].

Pascal (1623—1662), mathematician and philosopher, gave the first model of polemical eloquence, uniting philosophy and science to good writing. At the age of 16 he composed a treatise on “*Conic Sections*,” which attracted the admiration of Descartes [*Dez-cart*']. At 18 he invented a “*Calculating Machine*,” similar to that by Charles Babbage. He next discovered the *Mathematical Triangle*. And in his 24th year, corroborated by experiment Torrecilli's theory of the *Weight of the Atmosphere*.

He is now chiefly known by what are called “*Pascal's Thoughts*,” and for his “*Provincial Letters*,” published under the fictitious name of “*Louis de Montalte*” [*Môn-tarlt*']. These letters, which are an attack upon the casuistry of the Jesuits, are profound and witty, argumentative and fascinating, and have been translated into almost all the languages of Europe.

His *Thoughts* are fugitive reflections, and short sentences chiefly of a religious character, and bear the marks of great genius and great infirmity.

Pascal was very delicate. At the age of 26 he abandoned the study of science, and became a religious recluse. He wore an iron girdle next his skin, and afflicted himself with daily torture. He was paralysed eight years before his death, and had fits of hypochondriasis.

* *Ricochet* pronounce *Rec'-o'-chey*, what English boys term “*ducks and drakes*.”

La Rochefoucauld [*Rōsh-foo-co*] (1613—1680) was the most distinguished nobleman of the court; and his house was the resort of all the literati of the day. He is now chiefly known as the author of “Maxims and Reflections;” and his name is identified with the axiom that *Self-love is the spring of every action*. Swift was one of his greatest admirers.

La Bruyere [*Bru-yair'*] (1640—1696) is universally known for his two works called “Characters;” the first a translation of Theophrastus, the latter an original work, and considered superior to the Greek model both in truthfulness and variety. It had an immense sale, and is still very popular. The style is concise and nervous, but sometimes affectedly sententious.

La Bruyère and Molière [*Mo-le-air*] did more to correct the follies and indecorums of the age than any other writers either ancient or modern, not excepting Aristophanes in Greece, and Cervantes in Spain.

Cassini (1625—1712) was appointed by Colbert [*Cōl-bair*] to the Royal Observatory just erected in Paris, and continued Astronomer Royal for 40 years.

He was the first to discover that comets are not generated accidentally in the atmosphere, but are regular planets governed by fixed laws. He also solved the problem for eliciting the *apogee* and *eccentricity* of a planet, which Kepler had given up as insoluble. He next discovered the satellites of Jupiter and Saturn; and determined the rotation of Jupiter, Mars, and Venus.

Lenotre (1613—1700), the “Father of Landscape Gardening” in France, laid out the gardens of Versailles, the Tuileries, St. Cloud, St. Germain, Fontainebleau, Clagny [*Clan-ye*], Chantilly [*Sharn-te-ye*], Meudon, and Sceaux [*Sko*]. He died at the age of 88 with all his faculties unimpaired, having never suffered a day's illness in all his long life.

The pope, on one occasion, sent for him to design a garden; and instead of going on his knees to him, Lenotre ran up to the old man, hugged him round the neck, and kissed him heartily on both cheeks, saying, with perfect good humour, “Good morning, holy father! how do you do? how do you do? You look hale and hearty, I am happy to say.”

Turnefort [*Tur-ne-for'*] (1656—1708) was the “Father of Botany,” and professor of that science in the *Jardin des Plantes*. His method of classification was founded on the variety of the petals, taken in conjunction with the fruit. Linnaeus followed him in all the main parts of his system.

Mansard [*Man-sar'*] (1598—1666), an Italian by extraction, was the author of several magnificent buildings in Paris, and invented both the “Mansard roof” and “Mansard ornament.” The *Mansard roof*, instead of being two straight inclines (Λ), has each incline broken into an elbow, in order to give more room to the attics. The *Mansard ornament* is a fretting in stone like coral.

His son-in-law Hardouin [*Arā-wah'n*] built the château of Versailles, the dome of the Invalides, the façade of the Louvre, and several other public buildings.

Perrault [*Per-ro*] (1613—1688) built the *Colonnade of the Louvre*, which Voltaire preposterously calls the “most august monument of architecture in the world.” The *Observatory* was another of his buildings.

His brother Charles was the author of *Fairy Tales*, a work still popular.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Man in the Iron Mask. This was a prisoner, apparently of distinction, who was confined for many years in the Bastille; most vigilantly watched; not allowed to utter a syllable; and compelled, at all times to wear a mask that no one might see his features.

He went by the name of L'Etang, but what his real name was nobody knows. Some think he was Fouquet [*Foo-kay*], the disgraced financier; some, the duke of Beaufort; others, the duke of Monmouth; others again maintain

he was a twin brother of Louis XIV., or else the comte de Vermandois, a son of the great king.

The most probable conjecture is, that he was count Ercölo Antonio Matthiöli, a senator of Mantua, and private agent of Ferdinando Carölo duke of Mantua. If so, he suffered this long incarceration, of 24 years, for deceiving Louis in a secret treaty for the purchase of fort Casal, of the king of Italy.

The agents of Spain and Austria, as it appears, outbid the king of France, and the treaty fell through; but the whole transaction was so scandalous, that it was the interest of all parties to hush it up.

The "Man" died in the bastille at the age of 63; and, to prevent any busy-body from recognizing the dead body, Louis commanded the face to be hacked and hewed to pieces.

St. Foix [*Fwor*] wrote a treatise on this state prisoner.

Madame de Brinvilliers [*Brarn-veel-ya*] (1651—1676), the great poisoner, lived in the reign of the *grand monarch*. She fell in love with Gaudin de Ste Croix [*Krwor*], a Gascon cavalry officer, while her husband was still living. Her father being informed of it, imprisoned the officer in the Bastille, where he became acquainted with Exili, an Italian, who taught him the art of compounding poisons.

On his release from prison, Monsieur Gaudin [*Go-dah'n*] imparted his knowledge to the marchioness, who, in one year, poisoned her father, her sister, and her two brothers. Not content with these atrocities, she actually traded in secret poisons; and the sudden death of many persons of quality about this period, shows to what a fearful extent her guilty knowledge was made use of.

The discovery of her crimes was as romantic as the tale of her ill-deeds. While Ste Croix [*Krwor*] was distilling poison, he accidentally dropped the glass mask, which he wore to prevent inhaling the noxious fumes, and fell down dead upon the spot. Government took his effects; and the marchioness laid claim to a certain casket with such unusual earnestness, that suspicion was excited; the casket was opened; and the poisons discovered, labelled and ticketed for use. Madame de Brinvilliers [*Brarn-veel-ya*] fled to Liege [*Le-age*], was brought back to take her trial, condemned, and executed.

L'Angeli (1620—1679), the court fool of Louis XIV., was of good family, but very poor. He was the last of the titled fools in France.

LOUIS XV. LE BIEN-AIME.

REIGNED 59 YEARS. FROM 1715 TO 1774.

Contemporary with George I., George II., and George III.

Kingdom. 1766 Lorraine and Barrois added to the crown at the death of king Stanislas. 1768 Corsica bought of the Genoese.

Married Maria Leckzinski, daughter of Stanislas, the exiled king of Poland.

Issue. Louis the dauphin, who died before his father; Marie Louise Elizabeth, married Felipe "Infant" of Spain; and seven other children who died young.

The dauphin married twice: First, the Infanta of Spain, who left no children; next Marie Josephe of Saxony, by whom he had five sons and 3 daughters. The two eldest sons died before their father; the three others succeeded in turn to the crown, they were Louis XVI., Louis XVII., and Charles X.

Chief Residence. Versailles.

History of Louis XV. Précis du Règne de Louis XV., by Voltaire; Vie Privée de Louis XV., by Angerville.

REGENCY OF THE DUC D'ORLEANS (1715—1723).

Louis XV., son of the duke of Burgundy, and great-grandson of the last king, was a sickly child of five years old, both fatherless and motherless, when he came to the crown. The regency was confided

to Philippe duke of Orleans, the nephew of Louis XIV., and heir-apparent to the crown.*

The death of the aged monarch was welcomed with real joy by the nation. The starving people ascribed to him their misery; and the aristocracy felt that a most irksome restraint was taken from their enjoyment.

Society now assumed a new aspect. Jansenism, which the *grand monarch* had persecuted, was tolerated; the spirit of freedom revived; the common people went into mourning, a privilege hitherto restricted to the nobles; and the court cast aside its forced austerity and devotion, for the most open and unblushing profligacy.

A wild thirst for excitement, and the deep weariness attendant on its indulgence, render this period the most shameless and corrupt of French history; and the orgies of the regent, in which his own daughter, the duchess of Berry, took part, have acquired a scandalous notoriety.

Madame de Berry, who had married the youngest grandson of Louis XIV., was a handsome but most licentious woman. Her profligacy was a bye-word; her intemperance disgusting; her impiety revolting. Her husband, who at first was passionately attached to her, soon abandoned her, and she would have eloped with M. la Haye had he not resisted this perilous adventure.

She hated her mother, and tried all in her power to annoy her. In the regency, she assumed a regal style; gave orders of banishment; crossed Paris to the warlike sound of trumpets; received foreign ambassadors; and, while degrading herself with every vice, exacted the most servile homage. As her death approached, she was laid on a bed of state, surrounded by attendants. Her last words were, "Is not this dying with courage and true greatness?"

The Regent was 40 years of age. His talents were doubtless of a high cast. He was well versed in geometry, chemistry, and poetry; was an excellent musician, and no less skilful in drawing and dancing; but the immoral Dubois [*Du-bwor*], his teacher, had brought him up in every sensual indulgence, and he was most grossly licentious and profanely immoral.

His court was "a cage of all unclean birds;" and, in order to secure to himself the crown, he is said to have poisoned the dauphin, the duke and duchess of Burgundy, and the duke of Brittany, all of whom died mysteriously in the course of a single year.

Louis-le-grand never countenanced these rumours; but, when the funeral cortège of the duke and duchess of Burgundy, with that of the infant duke of Brittany, passed the Palais-Royal, the mob cried out, "Come forth, poisoner, and see what havoc you have made."

Dubois. The duke called to his council his favourite tutor Dubois [*Du-bwor*], who so pandered to his pleasures, that the duke heaped upon him honour after honour.

* The next heirs to the crown were Felipe V. of Spain; the duc d'Orléans; the princes de Condé and de Conti; and the two legitimized sons of the late king, duc de Maine and the comte de Toulouse.

He first made him a counsellor of state; then ambassador extraordinary to England; then secretary for foreign affairs; then archbishop of Cambray; and lastly, obtained for him a cardinal's hat.

Quadruple Alliance (1718). The influential men of France were divided into two parties, the Spanish and the English. The Spanish party wanted to maintain a strict union with Spain. The English party inclined to an alliance with England.

Dubois was in the pay of the English government, and Lord Stair, the English ambassador in Paris, was the boon companion of the Regent. With such influence, it is not difficult to understand how France was induced to conclude with England and Holland a triple alliance.

The year following, these three powers obtained the concurrence of Germany, and the four signed the treaty called the *Quadruple Alliance*, to which Spain was called upon to accede within the space of three months.

The three main objects of this alliance were: To guarantee the succession in England to the House of Hanover; to secure the succession in France to the House of Bourbon; and to prohibit Spain and France from uniting under one crown.

In 1723 the king attained his majority. Both Philippe the Regent and the infamous Dubois died the same year.

Cellamare's Conspiracy (1718). The duchess of Maine was strongly opposed to the Regent, because the late king had, in his will, awarded the regency to her husband; but, as the duke was only a natural son of the late king, the *parlement* had set aside this appointment.

Madame, greatly annoyed, now entered into a plot with Spain to depose the Regent; and Alberoni gave instructions to Cellamare, the Spanish ambassador at Paris, to further the views of the duchess by all means in his power.

The object of Alberoni and Madame du Maine were not altogether identical. The latter hoped to transfer the regency to her husband; the former, to secure it for the king of Spain, and to out-manœuvre the Quadruple Alliance.

The plot was discovered, through the imprudence of Cellamare's secretary. The ambassador was conducted to the frontiers of the kingdom, the duchess was committed for safe keeping to the duc de Bourbon, and several of the other conspirators were sent to the Bastille; after a time, however, all were released, and the affair blew over.

Madame du Maine now retired to her little court at Sceaux [*Sko*], which resumed its former brilliancy. Her own elegant style of conversation gave a tone to those who frequented her mansion; and

Madame de Staal, in her *Memoirs*, has given a lively picture of the wit and talent, refinement and heartlessness, amusement and weariness, which distinguished these reunions.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE REGENCY OF LOUIS XV.

The Regency was a transition state, between the stern tyranny of the *grand monarque* and the weak profligacy of his successor. On the death of Louis XIV. a rebound took place; every one felt himself free, and plunged into the most sensual excesses; religious faith and political institutions were looked upon as antiquated follies; and materialism, in the grossest form, became the prevailing feeling; of the nation.

In the regency, materialism was only a *feeling*, but as the reign advanced, it *developed* into a *creed*. The philosophers and encyclopædists were not the *authors* of that scepticism; they merely availed themselves of the general feeling, diffused it, and reduced it into a system.

Louis XIV. held unlimited control not only over all political and military affairs, but over public opinion also. His successor was indolent, self-indulgent, and apathetic. His political power he gave up to his ministers and mistresses; and, as for literature, he left it so unheeded, that it fell into the influence of those brilliant women, whose *bureaux* form a prominent feature of the reign.

In the sixteenth century, the literature of France had been learned and religious; in the seventeenth, brilliant and poetical; but in the eighteenth, it was almost exclusively *philosophic*. Never was there an age less fitted for faith and poetry. Abstract reasoning superseded imagination; cold analysis took the place of feeling; and the excitement of letters was everywhere sought with the most greedy avidity.

Two women, Madame de la Popelinière [*Pope-lin-e-air*] and Madame de Tencin [*Tarn-sar'n*], represented the two chief classes of *beaux-esprits*. The former, the wife of a wealthy farmer-general, was the patroness of art; and helped, in no small measure, to found that degraded school, which superseded the stately magnificence of the preceding reign. Rameau [*Rar-mo*] the composer of worthless operas, Vanloo and Bouchet [*Boo-shay*] who degraded painting to the lowest state of insipidity, Vaucanson the automaton-maker, and Bernis whose poetry is full of bombast, false sentiment, and affectation, were the leading men in her reunions.

She assumed, however, to be the arbiter of taste; passed her judgment on all works of art; and J. B. Rousseau [*Roos-so'*] was the first who ventured to differ from her. Happily, her reign was short. She died in the flower of her age, disgraced by an intrigue with Richelieu, divorced from her husband, and abandoned by her friends.

Madame de Tencin [*Tarn-sar'n*] had been a nun, but had laid aside the veil for a "life of pleasure." She became a very profligate woman, and had one child, the future mathematician and philosopher D'Alembert, but the unnatural mother exposed the infant on the steps of the church called St. Jean-le-Rond, and he was brought up by a poor glazier's wife.

Madame de Tencin [*Tarn-sar'n*] was a very different lady to the rich financier's wife. She patronized only high literature, science, and daring thought. Her guests were men of bold and daring spirits, such as Montesquieu, whose *Persian Letters* had already obtained universal admiration; Helvétius, famous for his work called *L'esprit*, to prove that self-interest is the spring of all our actions; Fontenelle and Lamotte, the oracles of taste in literature; Rollin, known for his *Treatise upon Studies*; Vertot, for his *Roman Revolutions*; the two Daciers, for their classics; Voltaire, for his *Henriade*; and our own countryman lord Bolingbroke. It was in these *menageries*, as they were called, that the seed of infidelity was nursed into vigour, and the future encyclopædists were fostered into distinction.

It may seem strange, that a woman so unprincipled as the ex-nun should have obtained so large an influence over the literary and political world of France, but so it was. Her advice to Marmontel was, "First secure the friendship of women, and your success is certain." This was literally true. Women were the ruling spirits of France, till the Revolution introduced its clubs, when the society of women was abandoned, and their influence rapidly declined.

¶ Amidst the scandals and calamities which signalize this period, some wise measures were adopted, and many useful works undertaken.

Duvernay, for example, founded the National Militia, amounting to 60,000 men, drawn by lot.

A vast and admirable system of roads was effected by the regent; and Christian schools were founded by the philanthropic exertions of François de Sales.

Public morality, however, was thoroughly degraded by the shameless examples of the regent, his daughter the duchess of Berry, and his friend the cardinal Dubois. And gaming was so general, that no family was secure for a single night.

THE MISSISSIPPI BUBBLE (1716—1720).

Two events worthy especial mention, though not of strictly historical importance, occurred during the regency of the duke of Orleans: The Mississippi Bubble and the Plague of Marseilles.

At the death of the late king, the national debt of France amounted to 208 millions sterling; the revenue of three years was consumed beforehand; and the credit of the nation was annihilated.

The regent used all his endeavours to reduce this heavy deficiency, but in vain; and, while he was still grappling with the difficulty, a Scotchman, named John Law, proposed to him his "Financial Remedy."

His plan was this: To be himself the sole creditor of the nation; and to be allowed to issue paper money to ten times the amount of the public debt.

The regent, seduced by the scheme, gave Law permission to open his bank, which was called *The Royal Bank of France*, and to issue his notes. The bank was in the hands of a nominal "Company;" the shares were £500 each; and the profits were to be divided among the shareholders in dividends. The Bank received deposits; discounted bills; gave bills payable at sight; and always paid all calls in paper. It was a prodigious success.

The duke was delighted to relieve himself of his embarrassment so easily; and, still further to encourage the plan, gave the "Royal Bank" the exclusive privilege of coining money, the monopoly of tobacco, the rights of the old "East India Company," the exclusive trade of Louisiana on the banks of the Mississippi, and the right of receiving all taxes and government imposts.

These mighty privileges made the shares immensely popular. The £500 shares rose to £18,000; and the street leading to the bank was crowded all day long with a dense throng of people trafficking in notes and shares.

As the value of the shares increased, the nominal value of the notes increased also, while that of metal coin was depreciated. Every house in the bank street, and every room in every house was a money-changer's office. And every house and every room in every house was crowded all day long with buyers and sellers of bank stock.

Money being plentiful, an immense impulse was given to trade. The number of manufacturers increased three-fold; foreigners flocked into Paris; shops were prosperous; and every-one seemed suddenly to have grown rich.

Gold and silver flowed into the bank in a continual stream, and the government reimbursed all its creditors. Still was there a glut; and a part of the surplus capital was employed in works of utility, such as roads, canals, public lectures, and schools.

John Law was the idol of Europe, the observed of all observers, the "lion" of the day. He was appointed Comptroller-General, became a catholic, and was naturalized.

At length, a panic was created. It was found, that the gold fields on the banks of the Mississippi were a myth; and every bank shareholder or note-holder was mad to sell his shares, or exchange his notes for specie.

A similar run was now made on the bank and brokers as before, but in the opposite direction. Every one was for selling; and nine shares, which a year ago would have fetched £160,000, might be bought for a sovereign. Law was hooted; his life was threatened; he was obliged to quit the nation; and he retired to Venice, leaving the duke of Orleans to pacify the infuriated sufferers as best he could. The nation was almost ruined; hundreds, and thousands, and tens of thousands, were involved and brought down by this gigantic bubble.

The English "South-Sea Bubble" was projected by Sir John Blunt and exploded at the same identical period, 1716—1720.

PLAGUE OF MARSEILLES (1720—1726).

While the nation was still groaning under the distress produced by the Mississippi bubble, a dreadful plague broke out in the south of France, brought from Syria in a merchant vessel which entered the port of Marseilles.

It first appeared in Marseilles, whence it spread to Arles, Aix, and Toulon. Its devastations were frightful. More than 80,000 persons fell victims to it.

Henri François Xavier de **Belsunce** was bishop of Marseilles at the time; and night and day, with heroic courage, exerted himself to succour the dying, cheer the despairing, comfort the afflicted, and point all to that source of help, which alone holds the issues of life and death. This Christian devotion and magnanimity gained for him the appellation of the *Good Bishop*, a title by which he is still recognized throughout all Europe.

On the cessation of the plague, Belsunce was honoured by the pope with the *pallium*, a mark of distinction never granted to any prelate below the rank of archbishop. Louis XV. offered him the rich diocese of Laon [*Lar'n*], which confers on its possessor a ducal coronet, but the "Good Bishop" declined the honour, declaring that Marseilles was dearer to him than all the world. He died lamented by all, but it was not till 1853 that the inhabitants of Marseilles erected a statue to his memory (1671—1755).

ADMINISTRATION OF LOUIS-HENRI DUC DE BOURBON (1723—1726).

Louis XV. attained his majority in 1723, and the regent was retained in office till his death at the close of the year. The duke of Bourbon was then appointed first minister of the crown. His term of office is signalized by only two events: A most impolitic proscription of the protestants; and the marriage of the king with Mary Leckzinski, only daughter of Stanislas, the exiled king of Poland.

A more unhappy appointment than this of the duc de Bourbon could not have been made. Wholly given to pleasure, he took no

interest in state-affairs, but left all such matters to the marchioness de Prie, an extravagant *intrigante*, whose only aim was her own pleasure.

Soon one universal cry, was raised against him; and the king was obliged to dismiss him, to the unspeakable satisfaction of all Paris. He next called to his council the abbé de Fleury, his former preceptor, an old man 73 years of age.

Madame de *Prie* married the marquis, her husband, to escape from the hands of her mother, whom she detested, and her very first act, when the duc de Bourbon came into power, was to persecute with vindictive eagerness all her mother's friends. Her avidity was unbounded. She not only received large pensions, but compelled her "lover" to increase her means by taxes. Fortunately for France, this "bad beauty" died in 1727, some say of poison administered by her own hand.

ADMINISTRATION OF CARDINAL DE FLEURY (1726—1743).

Fleury was a most amiable, gentle, and modest man, of winning manners and simple habits. On his appointment, he was created cardinal; and Voltaire says, "If ever mortal could be pronounced happy, it was the cardinal de Fleury."

He introduced the most rigid economy; reduced the taxes; and kept the nation for seven years in profound peace, during which time it recovered much of its prosperity. But he was far better calculated to direct the helm in a calm, than to guide it in a storm.

When war broke out, his love of peace induced him to temporize,* and prevented his adopting vigorous measures; consequently, the nation drifted into a war, and met only reverses and disgrace.

War of the Polish Succession (1733—1738). It will be remembered that Louis XV. had lately married the daughter of Stanislas Leckzinski, the exiled King of Poland.

At the decease of Augustus II., the vacant throne was contended for by Stanislas, and Augustus III. son of the late king. France favoured the cause of the former, and Russia that of the latter.

Stanislas was proclaimed in Warsaw, whither he had repaired in disguise; but the Russian army pressed so closely upon him, that he fled to Dantzic, where he waited succours from France.

Fleury, after a delay of three months, sent him a paltry force of 1500 men. It was impossible to hold out; Dantzic fell into the hands of the Russians; and Stanislas with difficulty effected his escape.

Other powers were now called into the contest. Spain and Sardinia sided with France, while Germany took part with Russia.

Lorraine was then a part of the German empire, and so was almost all Italy. France seized upon Lorraine; and sent forth two armies to make reprisals, one into Germany, and the other into Italy, under the commands of Berwick and Villars.

The duke of Berwick took the strong fort of Kehl [*Kale*] opposite Strasbourg, and Villars took Milan; but, within a few weeks of these exploits, both these famous marshals died.

Other generals were appointed, who obtained other advantages; and the emperor sued for peace, the terms of which were signed at Vienna.

Treaty of Vienna (1738). The conditions were as follows:

(1) Stanisłās was to resign all claim to Poland; was to be called king of Lorraine, so long as he lived; and at his death, Lorraine was to be attached to France.

(2) Francis III., duke of Lorraine, and son-in-law of the emperor, was to receive Tuscany in compensation of his late dukedom.

(3) Naples and Sicily, taken by Spain in the late war, were to be placed under Don Carlos, son of the king of Spain.

(4) France was to resign Milan and Mantua; to the emperor Charles VI.

(5) Sardinia was to have Tortōna and Novāra.

And, lastly, upon the demise of Charles VI. all the powers agreed to recognize the succession of his daughter, Maria Therēsa, wife of Francis III. grand duke of Tuscany.

War of the Austrian Succession (1740—1759). Such were the conditions of the peace; but scarcely were they signed when the emperor died, and a host of rivals laid claim to the empire. One of these was Charles Albert elector of Bavaria, who applied to France for aid; and France, in direct violation of the late treaty, consented to support him.

The united French and Bavarian army marched into Austria without opposition, and Maria Theresa sought refuge in Hungary. Here she boldly entered the house of legislature with her infant children, and said to the assembly, "Gentlemen, I here commit to you the son and daughter of your kings;" and all the house exclaimed, "Lady, we accept the charge, and will die in the defence of Maria Therēsa our Sovereign."

Dettingen (1743). From this moment, the whole aspect of affairs was changed. Prussia, Sardinia, and Saxony, made their own terms, and retired from the contest; while England and Holland declared for Maria Theresa, and sent over an army of 37,000 men, under the command of George II. and lord Stair.

The French, under the duc de Noailles [*No-ā-ya*] and de Grammont, to the number of 60,000, fell upon the allies in a narrow defile close to the village of Dettingen. "Now boys," cried king George, "fire! Behave well, and they will run!" Shock after shock from the impetuous French horse broke on the steady lines of British infantry, in vain; at length, George advanced in solid column, driving

de Grammont's horse and foot before him. The day was won. The loss of the French was 6000, that of the allies not a third of that number.*

¶ Cardinal de Fleury died a few months prior to this defeat, at the age of 90; and Louis XV. resolved in future to act on his own judgment, without any authorized adviser.

FROM THE DEATH OF FLEURY TO THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

(1743—1756.)

The king now found himself in a similar predicament to his great grandfather in the Spanish War of Succession. France and Spain were pitted against England, Austria, Holland, and Savoy.

Fontenoy (1745). Urged by the duchess de Châteauroux [*Shar-to-roo*], Louis went in person to attack the Austrian possessions in the Low-Countries, and met with considerable success; but he fell so grievously ill, that his life was despaired of. On his recovery, the people gave him the title of *Well-Beloved*.

In 1745, was fought, near the village of Fontenoy, one of the most glorious battles in French history. An allied army of English, Austrians, and Dutch, under the command of the duke of Cumberland, was completely vanquished by Marshal Saxe, who was at the time so ill, that he was carried from post to post in a litter. Both Louis and the dauphin were present at this engagement.

Lawfelt (1747). The next great victory gained by marshal Saxe was at Lawfelt, in the Netherlands. This also was over the allies, under the command of the duke of Cumberland. The way to Holland was now open; and the victorious army marched onwards, taking several Dutch cities, the chief of which was Bergen-op-Zoom.

Belle-Isle (1747—1759). These victories were but a poor compensation for the terrible destruction of the French fleet off cape Finisterre [*Fe-nis-tair*], at the battle of Belle-Isle.

Admiral Hawke was the commander of the British squadron. A few years later, he again fell in with the French fleet near the same spot, and gained a second victory, not inferior to the first.

Both parties were now desirous of peace, and the terms were signed at **Aix-la-Chapelle**. England, Holland, and France, agreed to give up all the places they had taken during the war; and Maria Thérèse was placed in possession of all her father's empire, except Silesia, which was ceded to Prussia.

Thus, after a war of eight years, nothing remained to France beyond the enormous expense of keeping 120,000 men in full equipment, and supplied with all the costly *matériel* of active war.

* This was the last battle in which a king of England has appeared in person on the field.

DISPUTES BETWEEN THE CLERGY AND PARLEMENTS (1748—1756).

France now enjoyed the blessings of peace for about seven years, disturbed, however, by factions among the clergy. The king, in the mean time, abandoned himself to the control of his mistress, the marchioness of Pompadour, a vulgar ambitious woman, whose influence was most pernicious.

Jansenists and Molinists. In the reign of Louis XIV., there had arisen a violent contest between two ecclesiastical parties, the Jansenists and Molinists. The former took its name from Jansen, bishop of Ypres [*Eap'r*], in Flanders; the latter from Molina, a Jesuit.

Two years after the death of Janson, his executors published the result of his persevering labours for 20 years; and great was the horror of the "orthodox" church. It turned out, that the learned prelate was neither more nor less than a Calvinist, denying the *freedom of the will*, advocating the doctrine of *predestination*, and comparing man to a machine which goes as it is made to go.

The inmates of Port-Royal, a convent of Paris, valiantly defended the doctrines of Jansen. Nicole and Pascal were the leaders of the party. Rome was appealed to, and the pope condemned the book. Louis XIV., therefore, expelled the Jansenists from Port-Royal and destroyed the convent. Not content with this verdict, the Jesuits instituted a regular persecution against their opponents, and, in some cases, pursued them even unto death.

The contest was carried into the reign of the "Well-Beloved." The king and archbishop of Paris sided with the pope, and supported Molina. The Paris parlement and most of the people took part with the Jansenists. The contest became violent, and a civil war seemed imminent.

Louis forbade the *parlement* to interfere, as it was an ecclesiastical and not a legal dispute. The lawyers not only refused to obey, but commanded that all writings which called their right in question should be burnt. The king now arrested four of the most violent members, and banished the rest from the city; but, that the business of the courts might not be interrupted, created a "Royal Chamber," with full jurisdiction in all civil and criminal matters.

The barristers and counsellors refused to plead before this chamber, and the Well-Beloved was obliged to recall his *parlement*. The exiled lawyers entered Paris in triumph; banished the archbishop with several other prelates; and proceeded to such lengths, that the king suppressed the fourth and fifth *Chambers of Inquests* which had been most violent.

Fifteen counsellors and 124 other law-members now tendered their resignation; the king gave way, ratified the banishment of the archbishop, and matters were accommodated for a time.

Abbe de Paris (1690—1727) Of the Jansënists, was the celebrated deacon of Paris, abbé François de Paris, a very good man, who spent all his money in feeding the poor, and was looked on as a saint. He was buried, at death, in the cemetery of St. Médard. And now comes the most marvellous part of this strange history :

It was given out that miracles were performed at his tomb, and multitudes flocked daily to St. Médard to be cured of their infirmities. That many were actually cured seems to be beyond a doubt, but the *cause* of the cures is variously accounted for. While the Jansënists maintain that it was miraculous, their opponents insist that it was simply the effect of strong excitement acting on the nervous system. Be this as it may, the affair became so serious, convulsions were so general, the crowd so enormous, and the excitement so great, that government interfered, and forbade any one from visiting the tomb.

This is certainly the most striking instance of "miracles" on record, since the days of the apostles; and Dr. Paley, in his *Evidences*, thinks it sufficiently grave to be worthy a serious consideration.

Damien (1757). While still the contest was going on, one Damien attempted to assassinate the king with a knife, and succeeded in wounding him between the ribs. When brought to trial, he pleaded that he did not intend to kill him, but merely to touch his heart, and reconcile him to the pope whom he had offended. The man was undoubtedly mad, but was put to death by torture.

Jesuits Suppressed (1773). Now comes the last scene of this strange eventful history. The *parlement*, eager to pursue their victory, carried on a most violent persecution against the Jesuits, and even insisted that Damien had been instigated by them to attempt the life of the king.

The king tried to defend them, and appealed to the pope; but the pope behaved so insolently, that Louis withdrew his protection, the society was suppressed, and the members declared incapable of holding office in the state.

Spain, Naples, and Parma, followed the example of France; and, at length, the famous Ganganelli (Clement XIV.) issued a brief for the entire abolition of the order.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR (1756—1763).

Ever since the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, a contention had been going on between England and France respecting the boundary of their American possessions. Canada was a French military colony, but England held contiguous settlements. As neither powers would give way, recourse was had to the sword.

When Maria Thérèse saw England and France at logger-heads, she thought it a favourable moment for recovering Silësia, which had been awarded to Prussia. Accordingly, she allied herself to Russia,

Saxony, and Sweden; and wrote a fulsome letter to Madame de Pompadour, praying her to bring France over to her interest.

Prussia, on the other hand, sought the alliance of England. Thus England and France were engaged in a double war against each other: One to decide the question about their American colonies; and the other to decide whether Silësia should belong to Austria or Prussia.

The former was a *maritime* war, mainly between England and France. The latter a *continental* war, in which England and Prussia were pitted against France, Austria, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden. The result was as glorious to England as it was disastrous to France. The latter power lost Canada and 19-20ths of her Indian possessions, all of which were added to the British crown.

THE EUROPEAN PART OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

Capture of Minorca (1756). Hostilities commenced by the duc de Richelieu blockading the island of Minorca, a British possession.

Admiral Byng was sent with a squadron of 10 ships for its relief, but sheered off without striking a blow; for which he was accused of treachery, tried by court-marshal, and shot.

The island of course fell into the hands of the French, but was delivered up again to England at the close of the war.

Capture of Hanover (1757). France next sent an army of 60,000 men to take Hanover from the English. The combined English army was commanded by the Duke of Cumberland, who retreated as the French advanced; and, at last, signed a disgraceful convention at *Closter-Seven*, by which both parties agreed to abstain from hostilities for the rest of the war, but Hanover was left in the hands of the French. This kingdom also was restored to England at the close of the war.

Victories of Frederick (1757). Frederick II. of Prussia entered upon the war with great spirit, and seemed to multiply his troops by the rapidity with which he led them from one end of Europe to the other.

Having conquered the Austrians in several engagements, he beat prince Charles of Lorraine at the sanguinary battle of Prague; then flew to meet marshal Soubise [*Soo-beez*] at Rosbach [*Ross-barh*], where he gained another victory; and from thence hastened into Silësia, where he obtained a third, over prince Charles of Lissa.

Victories of the English (1759—1761). While Frederick of Prussia was thus struggling with success against France and her allies, the Duke of Brunswick entered on the field, and defeated them first at Crevelt, and the year following at *Minden*, in Westphalia.

In 1761, Belle-Isle was captured by the English fleet under Keppel; but was restored again at the conclusion of the war.

THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH PART OF THE WAR.

Quebec (1760). During all the war, the English showed an invincible superiority at sea, and utterly ruined the maritime commerce of her great rival.

In America, general Wolf laid siege to Quebec, which belonged to France. It was obstinately defended for several months, but carried at length; and all Canada fell into our hands. In this battle, the English and French generals, Wolf and Montcalm, were both slain.

Senegal, Pondicherry, &c. In Africa and the East Indies, the French were equally unsuccessful. In the former continent, they lost the colony of Senegal; and in the East Indies, Lord Clive took from them Pondicherry and all their other possessions, whereby he laid the foundation of our enormous Indian power.

Pondicherry was taken by the English in 1761, and restored to France by the *Peace of Paris* in 1763. It was again taken by the English in 1778, and restored in 1783. It was taken a third time by the English in 1793, and finally restored to France in 1814. It is now the capital of the French possessions in India.

When Clive first landed in India, the English nation had scarcely a foot of territory it could call its own. The French and their allies had deprived us of everything; but, in less than six years, the English power was established there on the ruin of that of France.

Clive had but 200 English foot soldiers and 300 Sepoys, when, in the August of 1751, he attacked Arcot, garrisoned by 1500 choice troops. After taking it, he stood a siege of 50 days against 10,000 assailants, amid hardships and privations almost unparalleled. This daring exploit paved the way of his future success. Victory followed him wherever he went; and, in 1760, he returned to England, as nothing more remained for him to do.

The Family Compact (1761). In 1760 George III. succeeded to the throne of his grandfather, and Louis the Well-Beloved offered to conclude peace. As Pitt rejected his proposal, he formed an alliance with all the other sovereigns of Europe belonging to the House of Bourbon, viz., Spain, Naples, and Parma.* This league is called the *Family Compact*. Nothing, however, came of it, as various unforeseen circumstances suddenly put an end to hostilities, and brought about the *Peace of Paris*.

* Louis XV. of *France* was the fourth king of the Bourbon dynasty founded by Henri IV.

Carlos III. of *Spain* was the fifth king of the Bourbon dynasty founded by the grandson of Louis XIV.

Ferdinand IV. of *Naples* was the son of Carlos III. of Spain.

Philippe of *Parma* was son of Charles de Bourbon, generally called Charles I. of Parma.

Peace of Paris (1763). By the terms of this negociation, France restored to England Minorca and Hanover, and allowed us to retain Canada and its dependencies, Cape Breton and all the islands in the gulf and river St. Lawrence, Senégal in Africa, the East Indies, and a part of Louisiana.

(2) Spain ceded to England Florida; and received in compensation a part of Louisiana.

(3) In regard to Austria, Prussia, Saxony, and the other powers, everything was restored to the same condition as before the war.

France was made to pay every one, and received nothing. Her marine was almost annihilated; her best colonies were ceded to England; and England, which seven years previously possessed scarcely a foot of land beyond the British isles, was not only mistress of the seas, but was put in possession of enormous colonies, of all the strongest naval stations in the two oceans, and of a multitude of islands.

FROM THE PEACE TO THE CLOSE OF THE REIGN (1763—1774).

The **Family Afflictions** which overshadowed the close of the last reign were repeated in this. The duke of Burgundy, eldest son of the dauphin, died at the age of 11 years, in 1761; Madame de Pompadour in 1764; the Dauphin in 1765; the dauphiness in 1767; the queen in 1768; and the queen's father a month or two earlier.

These numerous afflictions caused the king some few moments of grief, but he soon plunged again into the most disgraceful excesses, attached himself to Madame Dubarry, and had the bad taste to introduce this worthless woman to court, to his daughters, and even to Marie Antoinette, the youthful bride of his eldest surviving grandson.

Death and Character of Louis XV. In the spring of 1774, died of small-pox Louis XV., despised by all classes of the nation; dissipated, listless, timid, and selfish. His conduct to his virtuous queen was scandalous; and he stands out in history as one of the most degraded kings that ever reigned.

Low-minded, mean-spirited, frivolous, a glutton and debauchee, he hated business, and was only content when his filthy taste was excited by low gossip, obscene pictures, scandalous anecdotes, or disgraceful intrigues. His word was utterly worthless, but he sugared over his foul deeds and false promises with the most plausible phrases and impenetrable dissimulation.

When pressed by his minister, the duc de Choiseul, to attend to business, his usual reply was, "Bah! the crazy old machine will last my time, and my successors must look after themselves."

It is said, however, that he was naturally amiable, and possessed a clear, penetrating judgment. It is certain that he was witty and

satirical. But indolence and apathy smothered whatever seeds of goodness he possessed; and he appears before posterity as a licentious, heartless, indolent, bloated sensualist, without one redeeming quality, the bye-word of kings, and the disgrace of his species.

When young, he was fond of hunting; but in more advanced life, sought amusement in the most effeminate employments. At one time, he took a fancy to worsted-work, and the palace was everywhere littered with wool, canvass, and needles. At another time, ghost stories and dismal tales of sudden deaths, funerals and graves, amused his prurient appetite. Later still, private suppers were made the means of indulging his love of infamous intrigues.

¶ His features were good, and his deportment dignified, but there was a total want of feeling in his countenance, and an expression of animal indulgence perfectly repulsive. There was no animation, no graciousness, no play of features, except perhaps a slight curl of scorn in the upper lip. His eyes were a beautiful blue, and his skin in youth was fair and ruddy, but as he advanced in life, he was purblind, his cheeks lantern-jawed, and his face full of deep wrinkles. His lips became livid and thin, his hands scraggy and trembling, his gait hobbling, his speech defective; he was a worn-out debauchee.

¶ He usually dressed in black, with a tail-coat, knee-breeches, black silk stockings, shoes with buckles, and a dress sword. He wore no collar, but a cravat with long lace ends. His hair was brushed all back, tied in a queue behind, and powdered.

He lived for the most part in that splendid monstrosity, the palace of Versailles, or its appendage the Great Triänon, the residence of Madame de Maintenon; but he employed Gabriel to build another retreat in the vicinity, the *Little Triänon*, a pavilion of 72 feet square, consisting of a ground floor, first floor, and garrets. It communicated with the Great Triänon, through a kitchen garden, by means of a wooden bridge. This retreat was built for one of his courtesans, but when Louis his grandson married Marie-Antoinette, it was given to the bride as her private residence.

Louis XV. had four daughters. Louise, his favourite, was Lady Superior of a Carmelite convent, the other three were ill-mannered, ill-tempered, and disagreeable. Adelaide he called *Loque* (lazy-bones); Victoire, *Chiffe*, (Hop-o'-my-thumb); and Sophie, *Graille* (slattern).

STATE OF THE ROYAL POWER IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XV.

The state of the royal power in France during this reign was very anomalous. In the heart of the *court*, despotism was complete; the king's will, law; and there was nothing so arbitrary, rash, violent, or licentious, that he might not attempt; but beyond the immediate capital and its suburbs, his authority was scarcely acknowledged.

Paris was in fact *France*, as far as the king and his court were concerned; the adjacent provinces, its *dependencies*; and those more remote still, its

colonies. So much indeed was this the case, that when an offending nobleman was ordered to absent himself 50 miles from Paris, it was called being *sent into exile*; and, in common parlance, there was no distinction between banishment from France, and banishment from the court.

¶ Louis XIV. used to boast *L'état c'est moi* (I am the state), but the favourite ladies of the court could have used the phrase with far more truth. During the regency of the Duke of Orleans, female influence had no direct political scope, but at the death of the regent, the king and his councillors were merely the visible actors of the great machine, while women were the secret springs which moved them.

Madame de Prie was the real minister during the Bourbon administration: Louis-Henri was the *pantin*, but his "favourite" pulled the string. On the death of Madame de Prie her mantle fell in succession on the Maillys, Pompadour, and Dubarry.

The Marchioness de Lambert used to boast that she could name whom she pleased to the Academy; and it was patent to all France that no member was elected without her approval.

The manners of the court, in this long reign, underwent three distinct phases. In the early part of the reign, when the passions of the king were under some restraint, there was a slight shew of decorum preserved in his presence, but the style of conversation was coarse and blunt.

The writings of Voltaire and Rousseau brought into fashion an hypocritical cant and mock modesty. Virtue was universally extolled; decorum was paraded; every one professed to be enamoured of rigid morality and rustic innocence of life; but the love was scarcely skin deep; and those who praised them most, were living in the practice of all ungodliness.

Towards the close of the reign, under the auspices of Madame Dubarry, all pretence to morality, religion, and decency, was given up. An air of dissolute frivolity, a care-for-nobody swagger, and mocking superciliousness, were the airs affected by the great.

The leering eye, licentious ribaldry, witty but no less malicious scandal, sugared inuendo, and scandalous example of the king, rendered his court the most disgusting in Europe. It can hardly be credited, in these decorous days, to what a state of demoralization the upper ranks of Paris had fallen. Dames of quality and education, yea, even unmarried ladies, indulged in the most indecent jokes, swore profane oaths with almost every sentence they uttered, listened with complacency to the grossest anecdotes, criticised pictures most filthily obscene, and retorted in inuendos which modesty could never utter.

The manners of the court, copied by the hangers-on and other imitators, were more abhorrent still. There was the same licentiousness only in a coarser mould, the same slang but more vulgarized, the same obscene wit but more indecent, the same indecorum but with a flimsier veil.

FEMALE FAVOURITES OF LOUIS XV.

The necessity of mentioning, in the sober pages of history, such abandoned women as the favourites of Louis XV. unquestionably were, is much to be lamented; but it would be folly to ignore their influence; and the history of the times would be wholly unintelligible without a reference to them.

The first mistress of Louis XV. was Madame de Mailly, who was soon discarded for her ugly but talented sister, the countess de Vintimille, who died suddenly. The duchess of Lauragais, another sister, enjoyed a short period of favour, but was soon set aside for her beautiful youngest sister, Madame de la Tournelle, better known as duchess of Chateauroux [*Shar-to-*

roo]. The duchess tried to rouse the king from his apathy, and actually induced him to take part in the battle of Fontenoy; but she died soon afterwards, in the arms of her discarded sister, Madame de Mailly.

The death of Madame de Châteauroux overwhelmed the king with despair. She was the only woman he ever loved, and certainly was infinitely superior to all those who followed her in the same disgraceful pre-eminence. She did not, like them, make a traffic of her power; nor did she degrade the king by pandering to his indolence and sensuality.

She was succeeded, in the post of royal favourite, by **Madame de Pompadour**, the daughter of a butcher, and wife of a wealthy farmer-of-taxes, whom she abandoned for the king. Graceful and beautiful, animated and accomplished, Madame de Pompadour, directed all her powers to amuse and please the king, but selfishness and ambition were the springs of all her actions.

From the first, she resolved to be the minister, as well as mistress of the indolent monarch. She conferred important offices of state on men wholly unqualified to fulfil their duties; and was the chief instrument of that fatal treaty with Austria, which led to the disastrous *Seven Years' War* and to the marriage of Marie Antoinette with Louis XVI.

Conscious of her power, the proud favourite assumed the style of a queen. Her suite [*sweet*] consisted of ladies of noble birth, and men of rank. She named bishops and generals, as well as ministers, judges, and ambassadors, but her choice was almost uniformly unfortunate. Voltaire sang her praises; Maria Thérèse of Austria disdained not to flatter her; and all who hoped for promotion bowed down before her.

In the court, the old noblesse were cast into the shade by a new moneyed aristocracy, sprung from the middle classes. Bad taste and frivolity characterize the period. Women of position amused themselves by breaking plates and glasses; and men, by embroidery or card painting. Even magistrates on their benches, and grave officials, might be seen pulling the string of some dancing figure, called a *pantin*.

Towards the close of the reign, the Anglo-mania was in fashion. Monarchy was undermined. The people had become intellectual, immoral, and impatient of their yoke; but the court with stupid fatuity, persisted in its weak, despotic, and extravagant policy. State prisons were still filled with untried captives, the victims of favourites and royal courtesans. Every one felt that a great change was at hand; but Madame de Pompadour satisfied herself and her royal protector with her favourite exclamation, *Après nous, le deluge* (let the flood come, in welcome, when we are gone).

For many years, this worthless woman set the fashion in dress; but her taste was essentially bad, as her admiration of the poetry of Bernis, the shepherdess in hoops painted by Watteau and Boucher, and the corrupt style which distinguished the furniture of the period, sufficiently shows. Even on her death-bed, she had her face rouged, and gave audiences to ministers and courtiers. Contrary to the usual etiquette, she was allowed to die at Versailles, the exclusive privilege of royalty; but, immediately she had expired, her body was hurried out of the palace. The king was looking out of the window at the time, and heartlessly remarked, that she had a rainy day for her last journey.

Louis XV. was getting old when Madame de Pompadour died. All the handsome and unprincipled court ladies strove by their blandishments to become her successor; but a common courtesan, Madame Dubarry, the daughter of a gatekeeper at one of the Paris barriers, was preferred to the disgraceful honour.

Nothing could more plainly show the increasing immorality and unblushing immodesty of the times. The first favourites were high born, well bred, and educated ladies, who veiled their wrong doing with decency, and tried to behave

with seemly decorum ; but Madame Dubarry, in language, manners, and taste, was no better than a common harlot.

For a time, Madame de Grammont, the sister of Choiseul the chief minister, formed a party against the new favourite, and the whole court was divided into two factions. At length, Madame Dubarry induced the king to dismiss his minister, and her ascendancy was complete.

Her next political act was to suppress the *parlements* ; but her reign was too short to make many changes. She transformed the palace into a noisy world, where no one was tolerated who did not contribute to the restless whirl of dissipation.

Madame Dubarry was a voluptuous beauty, all dimples. Her skin fair, mouth small and rosy, eyes sparkling and languishing, hair a light chesnut colour and admirably curled. At the death of the king, she retired from court and lived unknown till the Revolution, when she was guillotined for aiding the escape of emigrants.

~~~~~ PAINTING, ARCHITECTURE, DRESS, AMUSEMENTS, ETC.

The reign of Louis XV. is justly termed the age of bad taste. As the literature was a mass of false morality, false sentiment, and false philosophy, so the **Painting** was a wretched jumble of gods and goddesses, shepherds and satyrs, drawn in formal dresses and affected attitudes, like French courtiers and dancing masters. Witness the specimens of Watteau.

The **Architecture** followed in the same wake. Every wall and every ceiling was bedizened with gilding, plaster ornaments, and flashy frescoes. The mansions seemed all glass both within and without. The windows were too large and too numerous for the masonry ; and to make the masonry still more unsubstantial-looking, it was crowded with panels and arabesque.

Huge stone pinnacles and balls covered the tops of every one of the piers ; a host of cupids were squandered on the stone work ; and vases or baskets of flowers were interspersed among the images.

The interior was no less crammed with decorations. There was not a panel without some painting on it, and that not in the best taste. Ceilings, walls, staircases, porches, all had their Neptunes and Apollos, Cupids and Venuses, Tritons and Nereïds.

† Not content with crowding the buildings with these rubbishy ornaments, gods and goddesses, fawns and satyrs, shepherds and shepherdesses, were introduced into every available spot of the gardens also ; so that a garden, designed for shrubs and flowers, resembled a stone-cutter's yard, where his chiselled ornaments, are displayed for sale.

Dress followed in the same wake. Never did men and women more disfigure themselves by the folly of fashion. During the administration of Monsieur Fleury, ladies wore in the street an exceedingly small cap, beneath which the hair was carefully tucked. From the neck, a robe expanded over an enormous hoop, so that the wearer looked like a walking pyramid.

Gentlemen wore very small wigs with a bag behind ; and the skirts of their coats were turned back so as to display the lining, which, like the cuffs and lappets, was generally of a different colour to the coat itself.

At the close of the reign, a new style for gentlemen was introduced by the *Maccaroni club*. The hair was dressed in an enormous toupee, with huge curls at the sides, and tied behind into a pigtail, with a knot. A very small hat was perched on the top, and was lifted from the head by a small cane. Round the neck was a full white cravat tied in an enormous bow. Frills from the shirt-front projected from the top of the waistcoat. The coat and waistcoat were both short, reaching only to the hips. The breeches were tight, of spotted or

striped silk, with enormous bunches of strings at the knee. A watch was carried in each pocket, from which dangled huge bunches of seals. The shoes were small with diamond buckles. And a walking stick with long tassels completed the costume.

Ladies decorated their heads with a mountain of hair, on the top of which they carried plumes of large feathers and bunches of flowers, till the head seemed larger than the body. It was by no means unusual to spend three or four hours a day over this part of the toilet alone, and 1200 hair-dressers did not suffice for the city of Paris alone. Hoops were discarded. The gowns were open in front, spread outwards from the waist, trailing along the ground, and displaying a rich laced petticoat, ornamented with flowers and needlework. The sleeves widened to the elbow, where a succession of ruffles and lappets, each wider than the other, hung below the hips.

¶ The fashionable **amusement**, for many years, was that called *parfilage*, or untwisting old epaulets and sword knots, in order to sell the gold and silver thread.

This strange diversion was brought into vogue by Jean-Jacques Rousseau, who makes his Emilius [*Emile*], the hero of a novel, follow a trade. This novel was very popular, and all the fine ladies took it into their heads that they must do something to earn money; so they unravelled epaulettes and sword-knots, filligree, nick-nacks, ornaments of silver and gold thread, sometimes purchased at a great expense, to sell again as ravellings.

Another amusement, equally absurd, was that of the men stitching and embroidering like women. There was the king and his courtiers, the judges on the bench, the barristers in the court, the lacqueys in the hall, the gentlemen in the lounges, all with their canvas and worsted, stitching away in a most ridiculous manner.

Another folly, equally unmanly and equally general, has been already alluded to. It was that of *pantin* or dancing paper figures. While this absurd mania lasted, you could not have entered a house or court-of-law, or walked the public streets, without seeing every person who wished to be thought in fashion, with a dancing figure in his hands.

¶ One of the fashions of the reign, introduced by the duke de Richelieu, was the accumulation of clocks and watches. Every gentleman carried at least two watches about his person. Madame de Luxembourg, one of the "lions" of the day, had as many as 32.

In all introductions and court presentations the lady had to make three formal courtesies and the gentleman three formal bows.

STATE OF LITERATURE IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XV.

The literature was a very important feature of the period, as it was the exponent of the national feeling, and not that of individuals only. It was essentially irreligious and democratic; and whether plays or novels, philosophy or theology, memoirs or poetry, no matter, there were the same stamp and superscription on them all.

Voltaire and J. Jacques were the leaders, and shook to the base the existing order of religion, politics, taste, literature, and manners. Montesquieu followed in the same path, showing up by wit, satire, argument, and examples, the abuses of the priesthood and government, and calling upon France to vindicate its freedom. D'Alembert, Diderot, Helvetius, Condillac, Mably, and a host of others, called *philosophers*, followed the same lead, and lived to carry on their siege into the next reign.

It will be desirable here, to explain the nature of the philosophy of this period, so widely different to that of ancient Greece. The heathen sages were

men who differed from the general public, and distinguished themselves by advancing theories and doctrines of their own; but the French philosophers were the exponents of public opinion, and merely clothed, in telling language, the floating ideas and generally diffused feelings of the people.

¶ Let us revert a moment to the philosophy of the previous century. It was *spiritualism*, and its chief exponents were Descartes [*Day-cart*] the Frenchman, and Leibnitz the German. According to their theory, all that is real is *spirit*, *soul*, or *self*; and that which is called *matter*, or the external world, is either a succession of notions impressed on the mind by Deity, or an unsubstantial vision.

Locke, the English philosopher, somewhat later in the same century, taught that all our ideas and impressions are derived from the *senses*. This theory was introduced into France early in the 18th century, and gave rise to the doctrine called *materialism*, a doctrine which maintained that the soul is not a spiritual something distinct from body, but the mere effect of organized matter, as light and heat are the effects of fuel in combustion.

Condillac was the person who popularized this theory in France, but he limited his exposition to the theory alone; Helvetius, in his *L'Esprit*, shewed its moral tendency and practical bearing; but La Mettrie went much further, and openly preached "the theory of sin with the shamelessness of a fool."

Soon every thing was tested by the new standard, and was received, modified, or rejected as it squared therewith. The existence of the soul, as distinct from the body, was discarded; the notion of a future state, ridiculed as absurd; the pleasure arising from the practice of virtue was looked upon as the great end of man; the name of God was changed into that of *Nature*; that of Jesus Christ into the *Legislator of Christians*.

Every one was a philosopher: Authors, with or without talent, bishops and judges, ministers and courtiers, priests and laymen, rich and poor, women and even children. It was the spirit of the nation, and nothing was tolerated which was not in accordance with it.

Of course these men, "so wise in their own conceit," were intolerant, and allowed no opinions but their own to have a hearing. Duclos proposed to extirpate protestantism by depriving protestants of their civil rights; and Naigeon was nicknamed, on account of his intolerance, the *Inquisitor of Atheists*. Titular rank and hereditary power were scouted as antiquated notions; the *sanctity* of kings was held ridiculous; and all the laws and institutions of feudalism were ruthlessly rejected.

Marmontel took upon himself to teach monarchs their duties, in his dull philosophical romance called *Belisarius*. High tragedy, in which kings and queens were the heroes and heroines, were discarded for sentimental comedy (*comédie larmoyante*), in which men and women of ordinary life were introduced. Rank and degree, order and justice, the laws of God and man, were swept away; and the catastrophe of the Revolution was a mere question of time.

The German baron D'Holbach, for 25 years, drew around him the most celebrated of the philosophers, who met at his board to attack religion and the government. Their influence was very great.

There were also three *bureaux d'esprit*, one presided over by Madame du Deffrand, another by Mlle. de Lespinasse, and the third by Madame Geoffrin. The first embraced the elite of the literati; the second, the leading political reformers; the last, professed sceptics. Madame du Deffrand was noted for her caustic wit; Mlle. de Lespinasse for the charms of conversation; and Madame Geoffrin for her practical benevolence.

§ 1. PHILOSOPHERS.

Malebranche (1638—1715) properly belongs to the preceding reign, but his great work, *The Search after Truth*, being the exponent of a system the

very opposite of that founded by Condillac, is a sufficient reason for selecting this place for a short notice of him.

Malebranche was a disciple of the famous Descartes [*Day-cart'*], whose axiom was this, *I think, and therefore I am*. From this axiom, Descartes established the existence of a God; distinguished between soul and matter; and called the body the machine of the intellectual soul.

Malebranche, starting from the same point, supplied many defects in the system of Descartes. He showed that the body and soul have a reciprocal action on each other. Maintained that the imperfect state of science arose from the imperfection of the human mind and human will. Denied that matter can produce ideas; and, therefore, ascribed to the *Deity within us* all the spiritual and intellectual powers of man.

The style of Malebranche is elegant, his reasoning ingenious, his morality excellent, but his work is not much read, and his name is now chiefly identified with the two axioms, "There is a mysterious union between God and the soul," and "The human mind intuitively sees God in all things."

Condillac (1715—1780), abbé de Mureaux [*Meu-ro*], never exercised the clerical functions, but employed his talents in literature, and allied himself with Didérot, Jean Jacques Rousseau, Duclos, and the rest of the encyclopædists. He was the chief of what is termed the *Sensational School* of philosophy.

To give a notion of this theory: Suppose a statue of man to be formed; suppose this statue to be endowed, first with the sense of seeing, then with that of hearing, then with that of feeling, and so on; Condillac maintained, that such a statue would be a true human being, and would possess all the feelings and ideas of a man. This theory is the opposite of what is termed *Intellectualism*, which supposes that we possess a *soul*, and that this soul, wholly distinct from the body, is endowed with faculties independent of the senses.

Condillac either misunderstood Locke, or perverted his system. Locke maintained that ideas are not innate, not stamped upon the mind when the body is born, but acquired after birth; but he does not assert that man has *no* mind or soul, as Condillac says.

Condillac's chief works are his *Essay on the Origin of Human Knowledge*, *Treatise on Animals*, and another on *Sensations*. His style is brilliant, lucid, and logical.

Helvetius (1715—1771) followed the track of Condillac in his work called *Spirit*, in which he attributes all our faculties to the senses, and maintains the axiom that "Self-interest is the spring of all our actions." This work was immensely popular, but was condemned by the Sorbonne, the Paris *parlement*, and the pope. The style of Helvetius is florid and pleasing, but full of affectations, and very discursive.

§ 2. ENCYCLOPÆDISTS.

D'Alembert (1717—1783), the famous mathematician and philosopher, was a founding, called *Le Rond* from the round church where he was exposed. He was brought up by a poor glazier, but assumed the name of D'Alembert.

His first great work was a treatise on *Dynamics*, his next a discourse on the *Theory of the Winds*. Numerous other mathematical works followed these two, and gained for the author a position in the very first rank of mathematicians.

With Didérot, he was joint editor of the famous *Encyclopædia*, to which Voltaire and all the *savans* of the day contributed. Besides the mathematical articles, he wrote the *Preliminary Discourse*, allowed by all to be a model of philosophical composition. It is at once lucid and profound, eloquent and logical.

So great was the influence of D'Alembert on the literature of the age, that he was jocosely called the *Mazārin of Letters*. He possessed the rare combina-

tion of mathematical acuteness and precision, with elegance and good taste, vast genius and plodding industry. He was one of the fathers of French philosophy.

D'Alembert was the natural son of Madame de Tencin the ex-nun. He lived with Mdle. de l'Espinasse, to whom he was greatly attached.

Diderot (1712—1783) was chief-editor of the famous Encyclopædia in 28 volumes. Besides revising all the papers in this great work, he composed the articles on history, ancient philosophy, and mechanical arts. As a writer, he is stirring, enthusiastic, ardent, and bold, methodical in arrangement, full of information, indefatigable, and quick to seize upon the salient points of a subject. He was a materialist and atheist, and made the Cyclopædia a vehicle for the diffusion of these opinions. His chief faults are dogmatism, self-sufficiency, a love of declamation, and a tendency to metaphysical subtleties.

In 1749 he published his *Letters to the Blind*, full of such impious paradoxes and treasonable sentiments, that he was imprisoned for it in the castle of Vincennes for six months.

The chief contributors to the Encyclopédie, next to D'Alembert and Diderot, were J. J. Rousseau who wrote the musical articles, Grimm, Dumasais, Voltaire, Baron d'Holbach, and Jancourt. Biography and History were excluded.

§ 3. VOLTAIRE AND J. J. ROUSSEAU.

Voltaire (1694—1778), called the *The Great Pan* and *Dictator of Letters*, was indisputably the most celebrated literary character of the age. His name fills the 18th century, and never has it been given to man to exercise a wider influence. He was the great organ of the epoch, and his versatile talent qualified him admirably to clothe the passions, feelings, and prejudices of his contemporaries.

As a dramatist, he takes a very high range. His tragedies, in the opinion of most critics out of France, are equal, if not superior to those of Corneille and Racine. *Edipus* is his best, and *Zaira* is the most pathetic drama in the language, not excepting the "*Phædra*" of Racine; *Alzira*, *Mahomet*, *Irène*, and *Meropë*, are all of sterling merit, the last is without any intermixture of love, a circumstance hitherto unprecedented on the French stage.

His *Henriade* is the best epic in the language. Its subject is the struggle between Henri IV. and the League. The poem displays great elevation of thought, many well-drawn characters, a good deal of striking description, and is written in harmonious verse; but it is defective in fancy, passion, invention, and sublimity.

¶ As a writer of history, Voltaire is inimitable in giving a bird's-eye view of a subject, but he is not unfrequently incorrect. His best productions in this department of letters are his *Essay on General History* and his *Louis XIV.*

¶ As a writer of tales and light poetry he has no superior. Lively, pointed, simple, and amusing, his language is a model of elegance and good taste.

¶ His chief philosophic works are his *Philosophical Letters* and *Philosophical Dictionary*. The former was burnt by the authorities of Paris for its infidel tendencies. His reputation, in the present day, rests chiefly on his witty and amusing prose. The didactic tendency of the age appears in all his poetry. It speaks even in his *Mahomet* and *Zaira*, as well as in his graceful poems and tales.

¶ As a man, Monsieur de Voltaire was a strange medley of good and bad qualities: Urbane yet irascible; vindictive but generous; democratic yet a flatterer of the great; timid yet daring; simple in his tastes, but vain beyond all limits and most exacting of respect; a fearer of God, yet an infidel; suave in manners, but dreadfully sarcastic.

He was frequently obliged to leave Paris, because his free notions and biting satires offended those in power. On one occasion he came to London,

where he was received with unbounded welcome, and was presented with a large sum of money, raised by subscription for his support.

On another, he went to live with Madame du Châtelet at Cirey, in Champagne, where he remained for 15 years, and composed his best works. Madame du Châtelet [*Shart-lay*] was a lady of fortune, the wife of a marquis, deeply enamoured of the works of Newton, and criminally attached to her learned guest.

On another occasion, he went to Prussia, and was invited to the palace of Frederick; but his vanity and arrogance were so offensive, that the king could not tolerate him.

Soon after his departure from Prussia, he retired to Ferney, a little desert village near Genève; and from this obscure retreat he poured forth his invectives against the government, church, nobles, nuns, priests, and indeed all classes of men.

Towards the close of his life he returned again to Paris, was admitted a Member of the Academy, and almost idolized. He now lived in great state; and dressed in a full suit of purple velvet embroidered with gold, wrought stockings with silver *clocks*, a magnificent sable mantle covered with rich crimson velvet, the gift of the empress Catharine, *peruque à la Louis quatorze* of brown unpowdered hair, and shoes with enormous buckles and high heels.

He died at the age of 85, and was privately buried, as the archbishop of Paris refused him Christian burial. During the revolution, his remains were moved to Paris.

The name of this great man was Marie François Arouet. In early life he was confined in the Bastille for some satires against the duke of Orleans, and on his release from prison assumed the name of Voltaire, from a small property left him by his mother.

Voltaire has been very differently judged. By some he has been overlauded, and overblamed by others. It must be remembered, he did not create the feeling which he embodied, but simply availed himself of it. It was because he ran with the crowd that he was so immensely popular. The world was with him, and he knew it. Had he lived at another period, his vanity would have drawn him into another path. He wrote for glory, and not for truth; for popularity and not from conviction.

Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712—1777), one of the most celebrated authors of France, was born at Genève and died at Ermenonville. He was first employed by Didérot to write the musical articles for the great Encyclopædia. He was not only an eminent writer, but an excellent musician and botanist.

His musical entertainment, called *The Village Fortune-teller*, in which both the words and music were by himself, was very greatly admired. In the midst of the applause excited by this little piece, appeared a pamphlet to shew that "the French can never have vocal music, on account of the defects of their language," a home-thrust which drew down upon him a torrent of abuse. He also published a *Dictionary of Music*.

He was first brought into notice as an author by a prize essay, the object of which was to shew that "the arts and sciences are injurious to morals." This essay is full of eloquence, ingenuity, and startling statements.

His *Emile or Education* caused no less excitement. Its object was to shew that education should be negative rather than positive; that it should seek to check evil propensities, rather than to implant either ideas or principles. This work was publicly burnt in Paris by the authorities.

His three great works are *Julia or the New Heloise*, a novel with no equal for warmth of painting and eloquence of sentiment; *Social Contract*, a political work in defence of democracy; and *Confessions* in six books, or Memoirs of his life.

During the Revolution, the works of Jean Jacques were immensely popular, but since that period they have fallen into comparative neglect. Still, he will always bear a high reputation for clear, simple, fervent writing, vigorous thoughts, startling paradoxes, and original ideas.

¶ As a man, the "melancholy Jacques" was a misanthrope and a recluse, of the most morbid sensibilities, and unhappy spirit. He was excessively vain, and thought the world did not sufficiently honour him, so he refused all honours. He was painfully jealous of Voltaire, his talent, popularity, honours, and wealth. He was a married man, but his wife Thérèse [*Ta-raze*] was a vulgar woman and a virago, who ruled him with a rod of iron.

Like his contemporary, Rousseau [*Roos-so*] also visited London; and, in order to attract attention, strutted about the streets in Armenian costume. He was very poor and died destitute.

In the Revolution, the Girondists were disciples of Voltaire, and the Mountain party of Rousseau.

Voltaire set up *reason* as the rule and guide of everything. Whatever could not be squared with human reason he rejected; hence his infidel notions and revolutionary doctrines. Nothing we know of Deity can be brought down to the grasp of human reason, because the finite cannot span the infinite. And, in governments, it is utterly repugnant to reason, that one man should be born a king and another a beggar.

Rousseau's theory was a return to the *patriarchial state*. He professed to hate civilization, and prated about universal brotherhood and the rights of man.

These two men intoxicated France with their infidel and democratic dogmas, and assisted, in no little degree, to bring about the great Revolution.

§ 4. MONTESQUIEU AND FONTENELLE.

Montesquieu (1689—1755) was the author of a work called *The Spirit of the Laws*, which weighs the merits of all the different forms of government from which laws emanate. This noble work cost him 20 years' labour, and is a model for style, precision, clearness, energy, and grace.

His *Persian Letters* are highly esteemed for their wit, pleasantry, and independent spirit. And his *Cause of the Greatness and Decline of Rome* is replete with the most acute remarks, written in a fine nervous style.

Fontenelle (1657—1757), called by Voltaire "the most universal genius of the age," was the nephew of Corneille, and the author of *Dialogues of the Dead*, the *Plurality of Worlds*, and the *History of Oracles*; but his reputation rests chiefly on his "Annual History" of the proceedings of the Academy of Sciences, and his *Elegy of the Academicians*.

Fontenelle combined the man of wit with the man of science, and was profound but simple. His style is lucid, and intelligible to the most ordinary capacity.

Fontenelle died at the age of 100. His dying words were, "I suffer nothing, but feel a sort of difficulty in living longer."

The baron de **Grimm** (1723—1807), was a German by birth, but lived for many years in Paris, where he became acquainted with the Encyclopædists. He was employed by the duke of Saxe-Gotha, envoy to the French court, to transmit to him an account of the writings, friendships, quarrels, and doings, of the most famous authors of the period. This *Correspondence* was afterwards published, and is very interesting and valuable. Baron Grimm was a man of good abilities but a coxcomb.

§ 5. BUFFON, DAUBENTON, ROLLIN, DUCLOS, &c.

Comte de **Buffon** (1707—1788) was the author of a well-known *Natural History*, which made an epoch in the study of Zoology. It was once immensely popular, but is now considered of no scientific value. The portions written by himself are *Quadrupeds*, *Theory of the Earth*, *Speech*, and the *Epochs of Nature*.

His descriptions are faithful, majestic, eloquent, and readable, but his work is sadly deficient in classification. His geological system is a wild conjecture that our planet is a chip knocked off of the sun by the concussion of some

stray comet. He advocated the "Molecular Theory," and attributes to animals an "inner material sense."

In person and bearing, the count was truly patrician. He dressed in courtly style; pursued his pleasant studies in the alleys of the royal garden; participated in all the fashionable vices of the age; and was a perfect model of a French philosopher of the 18th century.

Daubenton (1716—1800) assisted Buffon in the first 15 volumes of the *Histoire Naturelle*, and greatly enriched it with new and important facts relative to the anatomy of animals. This part of the work is by far the most valuable. Indeed Daubenton, is still regarded as a master in Comparative Anatomy.

Lacepede (1757—1825) added the history of *Oviporous animals, Serpents, Fishes, and Whales*.

Gueneau de Montbeillard (1720—1785), a description of *Birds*. His histories of the peacock, nightingale, and swallow, are especially admired.

Sonnini (1751—1811) wrote the history of *Foreign Birds*, and published an edition of Buffon in 127 volumes.

Dandin added a history of *Reptiles*.

Latraille (1762—1833), a history of *Insects*.

Montfort and Roissy a history of *Mollusks and Crustaceans*.

Mirbel a history of *Plants*.

Rollin (1661—1741), the author of *Ancient History* in 13 volumes, and *Roman History* in 16 volumes, was till very lately, the standard author of ancient history in England; but he is now almost entirely superseded by more recent works. His style is easy and simple, his language elegant and well chosen; but he is too prolix in reflection, gives too much credit to exaggerations, and receives as facts many of the legends of antiquity. His *Treatise on Studies* is still reckoned the best work on the subject produced by any French author.

Duclos (1705—1772), historiographer of France, published *Secret Memoirs of the Courts of Louis XIV. and XV.*, full of curious and interesting particulars; a *History of Louis XI.*, and a novel or two. He was also one of the compilers of the *Dictionary of the French Academy*.

BOCHART, the great oriental scholar, lived in this reign.

CALMET, author of the *Dictionary of the Bible*.

CHAULIEU, the *Tom Moore* of France, called the "Anacreon of the Temple."

T. BAPTISTE ROUSSEAU, the best Ode-writer of France.

DESTOUCHES the best writer of comedies next to Molière.

MARIVAUX, celebrated for his sentimental comedies and novels.

LEMOINE the artist, who painted the ceiling in the *Salon d'Hercule at Versailles*.

REGAUD, the *Van Dyck* of France.

ADAM, who made the group of *Neptune* in the gardens of Versailles.

§ 6. MARMONTEL, GRESSET, RAMEAU, AND BARON.

Marmontel (1723—1799) contributed the literary articles to the *Encyclopædia*, but is better known for his *Moral Tales*, his *Belisarius*, *The Incas* a prose poem, his own *Memoirs*, and his *Elements of Literature*. His style is easy, lively, and animated. He shows considerable invention, and addresses himself to the judgment, the imagination, and the heart. In society, he was a cold, insipid, prating pedant.

Gresset (1709—1777) is well-known for his admirable tale in playful verse of *Ver-Vert*, a paroquet; epistles of *La Chartreuse*, abounding in ingenious pleasantry; a poem called *Les Ombres*, full of accurate portraiture; and a comedy called *Le Méchant*.

Rameau (1683—1764), called the *Newton of Harmony*, was the most philosophical musician in France. His great work is a *Dissertation on the Principles of Harmony*.

Baron (1653—1729), the *Roscius* of France, was equally famous in tragedy and comedy. He possessed a noble voice, a handsome person, a commanding figure, excellent judgment, enthusiasm, and genius.

N.B. In 1769 were born Wellington, Napoléon Bonaparte, Soult, Mehemet-Ali, Cuvier, Châteaubriand, and Sir Walter Scott.

LOUIS XVI.

REIGNED 18 YEARS. FROM 1774 TO 1793. *Contemporary with George III.*

Kingdom divided in 1790 into 83 departments by the National Assembly.

Married Marie Antoinette, arch-duchess of Austria, a daughter of Maria-Therësa. Guillotined 1793.

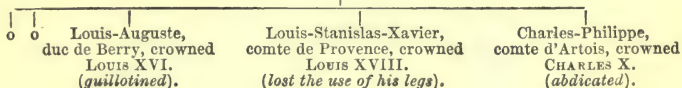
Issue. Eldest son died in infancy; Louis-Charles, afterwards Louis XVII.; Maria Thérèse, styled "Madame Royale de France;" and a daughter who died in infancy.

Residences. Versailles and the Palais Royal.

History of the Reign. *Mémoires* by Cléry, Hue, and Edgeworth.

Louis XV.

Louis the Dauphin



PART I. (1774—1789).

Louis XVI. was 20 years old at the death of his grandfather. He was an amiable man, who sincerely wished the welfare of his subjects; and amidst the irreligion and corruption of the court, preserved a pious heart, unblemished character, and business-like manner of life.

His great faults were timidity, irresolution, and the weakness of good nature; he was, therefore, utterly unfit to govern a people who set no value on his virtues, but required to be ruled with an iron hand and master spirit.

✕ When he came to the throne, he found the finances in the utmost disorder; the people weighed down with taxes; a host of writers, clever, witty, unprincipled, and immensely popular, writing against religion and time-honoured institutions; and the New World struggling for independence.

These were the ingredients that made up the leaven of discord which had begun already to work, and was soon about to throw the whole nation into a ferment.

¶ The first acts of the young monarch were well-intentioned. He remitted the "gift" usually collected at the accession of a new king; diminished the imposts; manumitted the royal serfs; and recalled the Paris parlement.

He named Maurepas [*Mo'-re-par*] his private adviser and President of the Council of State, but without a portfolio. Maurepas appointed Turgot [*Too'r-go*] Comptroller-General of Finance; Malesherbes [*Mals-ha'erb*], Intendant of the palace; Vergennes [*Vair-gann*], Minister of Foreign Affairs; Sartine, Minister of Marine; and comte de St. Germain, Secretary of War. This was a cabinet of unexceptionable ministers, talented and eager to reform abuses; but their

measures met with the greatest opposition from the nobles, and they fell a sacrifice to paltry court intrigue.

Comte de Maurepas (1701—1781) was chosen, at the age of 24, Minister of War by Louis XV., and continued in office 24 years, when he was exiled for writing an epigram upon Madame de Pompadour. After an exile of 25 years, Louis XVI. recalled him to preside over his cabinet, and he remained for seven years the leading star of the new king.

Monsieur de Maurepas [*Mo'-re-par*], though an old man, was a laughing, jesting, frivolous courtier; fond of all sorts of amusements, but especially of collecting ballads. There was not a ballad, epigram, or squib, of which he had not a copy; and several folio volumes of these political trifles are still preserved in the Imperial Library of Paris.

Without doubt, he was a man of great ability, but wholly unfit for the confidence reposed in him. Whatever he might have been in the reign of Louis XV., it is quite certain that, after his return to power, he was led entirely by his wife, a sour, intriguing, grumbling old lady.

Malesherbes (1721—1794) was a minister under Louis XV. He remonstrated so firmly with that worthless monarch on his encroachments, that he was dismissed from office, and retired into private life. On the accession of Louis XVI., he was recalled to office, with his friend Turgot, and made Minister of the Home department and Intendant of the household.

At this period, there was an infamous custom, still prevalent, whereby any one might be cast into prison without knowing the cause of his arrest. It was done by the king granting what was termed a *lettre de cachet* (a sealed letter), in virtue of which the obnoxious person might be arrested, and sent either to prison or into exile, without trial or the means of self-defence.

Monsieur de Malesherbes strenuously set his face against this custom, and drew upon himself such a torrent of abuse, that he was obliged to retire from the ministry. This he did at the same time that his friend Turgot resigned his portfolio.

Some 10 years afterwards, he was recalled, but retired again in a few weeks, and lived in complete seclusion till the breaking out of the Revolution.

When the king was brought to trial, Malesherbes, then 72 years of age, was one of the three counsellors who undertook his defence. His noble conduct excited the jealousy of the revolutionists; and the old minister, his daughter and her husband, his grandchildren, and other near relations, were all mercilessly sent to the guillotine.

Posterity has placed Malesherbes on the list of the very brightest ornaments of France. He wrote several tracts on political economy and rural affairs, and was the author of *Observations on the Natural History of Buffon*.

Gabriel de Sartine (1729—1801) was also a minister under Louis XV., and acquired a European reputation as lieutenant-general of police, and by his system of lighting the streets by lamps. He retired to Spain at the breaking out of the Revolution, and remained there till his death.

(1) ADMINISTRATION OF TURGOT (1774—1776).

Turgot [*Too'r-go*] was a most patriotic and enlightened statesman; upright, firm, and just; but his reforms drew down upon him the united opposition of the clergy, nobles, monopolists, and *parlements*. All his measures were misrepresented; and after vainly attempting to stem the tide for two years, he resigned and retired into private life. "Alas!" said the good Louis, when he accepted the resignation, "there are but two men in the whole nation who really love the people, Monsieur Turgot and myself."

Turgot greatly reduced the duty on all articles of necessity imported into France; freed commerce from numerous restrictions; abolished monopolies and exclusive companies; and, what was the unkindest cut of all, proposed that a tax should be laid on all the landed pro-

perty of the nation, including that of the clergy and nobles, who had hitherto been exempt from all taxation.

(2) ADMINISTRATION OF NECKER (1776—1781).

On the retirement of Turgot, Monsieur Necker, a Genevese, was named Director-General of Finance, without a portfolio. He was a wealthy banker; and had won golden opinions by a treatise *On Legislation*, which ran through twenty editions in twelve months.

His business-like habits and financial knowledge soon reduced the expenses of government to the level of the income; but he was never popular with the king and court. He was a parvenu, a foreigner, and a protestant, strong all against their prejudices. Then, he was extremely economical, strict in his accounts, and set his face like a flint against sinecures, pensions, and gifts. These were unpardonable offences with the privileged classes, but with the people were applauded to the echo.

In the fifth year of office, Monsieur Necker printed his *Finance-Table*, or statement of receipts and disbursements. This was the first work of the kind ever published, and caused an immense sensation. Routine, self-interest, and vanity were sorely stung by the *exposé*; and raised up such a clamour that the Genevese was obliged to resign.

As a financier, Necker was worthy of all praise; he was an honest, but not an enlightened minister. The exchequer was enriched by him, but alas! the richer the exchequer the more importunate the numerous petitioners around the king. While there was no money, it was useless to clamour for it; but as soon as the coffers were full, the king was assailed on all sides with the cry of *Give! give!* It must not, however, be forgotten, that Necker could do nothing without the consent of Monsieur de Maurepas [*Mo'-re-par*], a man grown old amidst the pomps, the vanities, and prejudices of the court.

The American War (1775—1783). In the meantime, the differences between England and North America had grown into a war. The contention had begun in the reign of Louis the Well-Beloved, the subject of dispute being simply this: Ought or ought not our colonies to pay taxes to the mother-country?

After much opposition and ill-feeling, Lord North proposed, as a compromise, the abandonment of every tax except a small duty on tea, in recognition of the principle; Boston resisted; Philadelphia threw off her allegiance; and Benjamin Franklin was sent to Paris to solicit aid for the impending struggle.

The French thought the time was now come to strike with advantage at the power of England, and transfer to their own nation the naval and commercial superiority of their rivals. An alliance was readily formed with the revolters; and, ere long, Spain joined the same party. So that Great Britain was pitted against America, France, and Spain.

Some 17 engagements were fought, none of which were very striking ; but in 1783, all the belligerents were desirous of peace. Accordingly, a treaty was signed at **Versailles**, in which the independence of the States was fully recognized. England and France mutually restored their respective conquests, while Florida and Minorca were confirmed to Spain.

¶ Such is a brief sketch of the American War, but the influence of the struggle on the French nation was tremendous. All the latent republican tendencies burst forth like a volcano. Sympathy with the insurgents was universal. The king, with blind policy, gave his support to the republican cause ; but the queen opposed it, and drew down upon her head a torrent of resentment.

Lafayette, a young and wealthy nobleman, with a large number of volunteers, crossed the Atlantic, to aid the Americans. All France was beside itself with enthusiasm. The Western war was the one engrossing subject of every one. Lafayette was the "lion" of the day. His bust was everywhere seen ; his name in everybody's mouth.

Franklin, the printer, appeared in the gay and brilliant capital in his prim quaker dress, unpowdered hair, and plain round hat, the observed of all observers. The quaintness of his dress and manners ; his sagacity and good sense ; his calm firmness and high principles, won the admiration of all the ladies, and everything became *à la Franklin*. There were Franklin snuff-boxes, Franklin stoves, Franklin dishes, Franklin ornaments, Franklin furniture, and I know not what besides. His portrait was in every house, and every one imitated him.

¶ In the midst of the American furor, Voltaire, after an absence of 27 years, and in the 84th year of his age, once more visited Paris, and added to the general excitement. His death increased the popularity of his works and sentiments ; and the declaration of American independence gave the finishing stroke to the ferment of public opinion. Louis XVI. really wished to reform abuses, but was wholly unable to satisfy the existing demands, and sought with palliatives to stave off the evil day. These half measures only increased the general discontent, and drew down the indignation of the people. He gave so tardily and grudgingly, that it would have been better policy not to have budged at all.

The **Gluckists** and **Piccinists** (1774—1780). Whatever Marie Antoinette attempted was attended with ill-success, and drew down upon her a host of enemies.

Gluck, the celebrated musical composer, went to Paris in 1774, and Marie Antoinette was delighted to encourage her talented countryman. The enemies of the queen immediately brought over the Italian Piccini [*Pit-shee-nee*], as a rival ; and all Paris was divided into *Gluckists* and *Piccinists*.

In the streets, coffee houses, private dwellings, and even schools, the merits of the two composers were passionately discussed; party-feeling furnished the only arguments; but the rivals furnished a rallying point for the enemies of the imprudent queen.

The two composers have but very little in common. Gluck is distinguished for grandeur and strength, Piccini [*Pit-shee-nee*] for melody and sweetness.

The **Diamond Necklace** (1785). This unhappy affair, in which the queen seems to have incurred no real blame, did her more harm than even the squabble of the musical world in which her name was mixed up.

The fact is this: Cardinal de Rohan, a profligate churchman, conceived a passion for the young queen, which he fostered for 10 years. The countess de Lamotte, taking advantage of this folly, induced the cardinal to believe that the queen returned his love, and succeeded in wringing from him several large sums of money, as "loans to her majesty." At length, she cajoled the vain churchman into buying a magnificent diamond necklace worth £700,000, and made by Boehmer for Madame Dubarry. The cardinal procured the necklace, and told the jeweller it was for the queen. He committed it to Madame de Lamotte, and received a letter of thanks, signed *Marie Antoinette de France*.

The countess sent the necklace to England and sold it; and the affair passed over quietly till the first instalment fell due, when Boehmer applied to the queen for payment. Marie Antoinette denied all knowledge of the transaction. An investigation was set on foot, and the truth came out.

The trial lasted for nine months, and created immense scandal. The queen was accused by many of being an accomplice with her lady; and the cardinal was universally commiserated, as the dupe of two designing women. The queen might be pure as snow, but suffered immensely in prestige by having her name mixed up in such a swindling transaction, especially as it reflected upon her fidelity to the king.

(3) ADMINISTRATION OF CALONNE (1781—1787).

By the advice of Marie Antoinette, Mon. de Calonne was appointed to succeed Necker, under the title of Contrôller-General of Finance. He was a brilliant courtier, whose whole policy was to conciliate the great, on whom he lavished pensions and places with the utmost prodigality.

He gave £600,000 to the two brothers of the king; £800,000 more were squandered in incidental expenses; and nearly three millions, to purchase for the queen, the magnificent seat of St. Cloud [*San Cloo'*] belonging to the duc d'Orléans, Rambouillet [*Rarm-*

boo-e-ya], and L'Ile d'Adam. Never had royal mendicants found such a liberal patron. Every one held out his hat, and no one went unalmsed away.

Of course, the public treasury could not support this waste. Loan upon loan was made to replenish the exhausted coffers, till the public debt amounted to a frightful sum.

Being wholly unable to maintain the public credit, Calonne at length convoked an *Assembly of Notables*. This sort of assembly, which was in reality a parliament of 144 nobles selected by the king, had twice before been convened, once in the reign of Henri IV., and again in that of Louis XII.

Calonne expected, that these Notables would immediately enact some scheme of general taxation to meet the present emergency. Great, therefore, was his disappointment when they refused to sanction any such measure; and the only step left him was to retire from office.

In 10 years the government had borrowed £50 millions sterling.

(4) ADMINISTRATION OF BRIENNE, ARCHBISHOP OF SENS (1787—1788).

It was generally expected that Necker would be now recalled; but the queen, yielding to the fatal advice of a favourite, induced the king to give the appointment to the archbishop of Sens [*Sanss*], a tall handsome man, of stately presence and courtly manners, ambitious in spirit, dissolute in conduct, and an atheist.

Mon. de Brienne [*Bre-enn*] assumed the imperious tone of a second Richelieu; advised the king to check the freedom of the press, and put down the protestants. As for the money difficulty, he suggested to the assembly a stamp-duty and land-tax, but the Notables refused their consent.

The only means now left of passing these measures, without convening a States-General, was by Royal Edict. But, before a royal edict could become law, it was necessary to get the Paris *parlement* to register it. When the archbishop sent the edicts to the Palais de Justice, the magistrates refused to register them; the king expostulated; and the *parlement* remained obdurate. What was to be done? Louis, by the advice of his haughty minister, banished the refractory lawyers to Troyes. This would not do; so he recalled them again at the end of five weeks, and had recourse to an act of arbitrary power called a *lit de justice*.

A "lit de justice" was this: If the *parlement* refused to register a royal edict, the king had the right of assembling his *parlement* and presiding in person on a throne or *lit*. In which case, he could enforce dogmatically any measure he thought to be for the benefit of his kingdom. The parlement was held at Versailles, and the measures proposed by the archbishop were royally declared to be law.

Having succeeded thus far, and thinking to carry the matter through with a high hand, he banished from court the duc d'Orléans, and arrested as traitors Eprémesnil [*Er-pra'-me-neel*], Monsabert, and two other magistrates, who had rendered themselves peculiarly conspicuous in the late struggle.

The popular indignation was in a ferment. An insurrection was hourly apprehended. And, in order to allay the storm, the vacillating king dismissed from his counsels the obnoxious minister.

(5) MONSIEUR NECKER RECALLED (1788—1789).

Necker was now recalled. His popularity had considerably increased since his retirement. He returned to office as the recognized advocate of liberal principles. The *parlement* resumed its functions; and a States-General was promised for May.

Now rose a difficulty respecting the manner of convocation, the number of members, and method of voting. To decide which important questions, the Notables were convoked again, and the matter referred to their decision.

(1) The first question was, whether the deputies of the *third estate* should be one-third or one-half of the whole number of members. The notables referred the point to the king, and Louis decided in favour of the commons, who, accordingly, were to equal in number the nobles and clergy conjointly.

(2) The next question was the method to be followed in voting: Was it to be by chambers or by poll? If the former, it would be easy for the privileged houses to combine and swamp the *tiers-état*. If the latter, the third estate would be able to outnumber the other two, and render their voices nugatory. This question also was referred to the king, but by Necker's advice was left for the nonce in abeyance.

The last meeting of the States-General was in the reign of Louis XIII. (1614).

CHIEF CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION.

We have now come to the French Revolution, an event unparalleled in the history of nations. When we look at the means employed and the ends accomplished, we are struck at the gigantic disproportion. It was like sweeping a house with an earthquake, crushing flies on a rack, or agonizing mountains to bring forth mice. No doubt, much, very much, was effected, and an incalculable amount of good resulted from the mass of evil; but the evil was for the most part gratuitous, and the good was by no means its legitimate fruit. The people, it is true, vindicated for themselves a more worthy position; the remnants of feudalism were swept away; the absurd distinctions of caste were destroyed; and many disgraceful laws and customs were abolished; but as for "liberty, equality, and fraternity," for which the struggle was ostensibly made, no approximation to them was ever attained. The whole scheme was a delusion. The whole project a cheat. King, queen, courtiers, sages, apostles of liberty,

and apostles of monarchy, all alike sowed the wind, and were doomed by an inflexible providence to reap the whirlwind.

In regard to the *causes* of the revolution, it may be stated generally that corruption, mismanagement, and oppression, combined with financial disorders, infidelity, and widely diffused distress, were quite sufficient to account for the political convulsion, which even in the preceding reign threatened to burst forth; but it will be advisable to call attention to some of the most salient evils which weighed upon the people, and some of the most active agencies which roused them into energy.

(1) Every branch of commerce was monopolized by privileged classes, individuals, towns, or provinces. Every office and dignity, whether civil, ecclesiastical, or military, was confined not only to certain classes, but to certain individual families. The privileged classes were almost wholly exempt from taxation, and, consequently, those who received nothing from the state had to pay all the expenses of government.

(2) Some of the taxes were odious and unfair. This was especially the case with that upon salt, called *Gabelle*. Salt was a government monopoly; and every person was compelled to buy at least seven pounds of it per annum, whether he wanted it or not. Heads of families had to purchase the same quota for each member of their house and establishment; and, still further to aggravate the imposition, no one was permitted to use this salt for corning meat, or for any other wholesale purpose.

Not even here did the evil cease. The price of salt was not *uniform*: In one province it was only one half-penny a pound, in another it was as much as sixpence. In Auvergne [*O-vairn*], a person could buy for 8s. as much as would have cost him 32s. in any other province. What was the natural consequence? A host of smugglers over-ran the kingdom, whose occupation was to smuggle salt. As many as 10,000 culprits were annually imprisoned for infringing the salt-laws alone; and of these, 500 were hung, and about the same number sent to the galleys.

(3) Again. Many of the laws and customs were most tyrannical and hateful; as, for example, the game laws, arrest by sealed letters (*lettres de cachet*), and the enforcement of royal edicts by the *lit de justice*.

By means of a "sealed letter," signed by the king, any individual might be arrested without being informed of his offence, or allowed the right of a public trial. Political offenders and personal enemies were thus smuggled out of the way; and the liberty of the subject was most grossly outraged.

In regard to the *lit de justice*, it enabled the king to enforce any law he chose, without consent of his "parlement," simply by presiding in person over the assembly.

(4) The financial state of the kingdom was desperate in the extreme. The disorder began with the death of Colbert; grew almost to a national bankruptcy towards the close of the reign of the *grand monarque*; recovered a little, and again relapsed in that of the Well-beloved; and at the discharge of Necker, in the reign of Louis XVI. became wholly remediless.

(5) Other evils co-operated to wean the mass of the people from the court: Among these may be mentioned the profligacy of the nobles; the isolation of Paris from the rest of France; the supercilious pride, idleness, extravagance, poverty, conceit, and immorality of the upper ten-thousand; the levity and fanaticism of the provinces; the resistance of the privileged classes to all reform; and the practice of government speculating in corn, whereby its price was kept up to supply the extravagance and prodigality of the court.

There were some other co-operating causes more especially belonging to the reign of Louis XVI.; such, for example, as the contentions between the king and his ministers; his squabbles with the Paris *parlement*; the contempt of

the nation for his imbecile want of firmness ; the growing unpopularity of the queen ; and the blindness of the upper classes to the danger which awaited them.

(6) The encyclopædists and philosophers, the poets and romance-writers, all contributed to disseminate and popularize the doctrines of atheism and insubordination. Their eloquence was most captivating, and their schemes of government could not be otherwise than acceptable to the masses. It was not a little flattering to the peasant and yeoman, artizan and rich tradesman, to be told that they were equal to the magnates of the land, who had always hitherto regarded them as vessels of inferior clay.

(7) It wanted but a spark to set the whole in a flame. The disjointed state of affairs was the common talk of all. It was the theme of preachers and journalists, taverns and drawing-rooms, the court and the jail. At length, the American revolution broke out, and the king had the infatuation to give it his sanction and support.

¶ It must not be supposed that even the most violent had, at first, any idea of the extent to which circumstances would carry them. Their first intention was to strip the throne of its unnatural privileges ; to limit the influence of the aristocracy ; and raise the common people to a more equitable position in the state. If proper concessions had been made, and the government had been strong and energetic, the revolution would have been crushed in its birth ; but the vacillation of the king, now yielding from pressure, and anon clutching at what he had given up, convinced the movement-party that the tree of royalty must be cut down, as a cumberer of the ground.

The writings of the philosophers were unmistakable signs of the times, but it must not be supposed that they *created* the feeling which led to the revolution. It may be taken as an axiom that popular books are exponents of existing opinions and not the originators of them. They methodize and fix them, furnish arguments in their defence, supply facts in illustration of them, wit, satire, and ridicule. They confirm and justify, but do not create, the movement. Not all the philosophers, encyclopædists, journalists, poets, and romancers, that teemed in this fretful period, could have stirred the nation to a simple riot, had it been well governed, prosperous, and generally contented.

Of all the books, which contributed to fan into flame the latent feeling, the most powerful were Condorcet's *Social Order*, and *What is the Third Estate ?* by Siéyès.

Portrait of the King. The profile of Louis XVI. was an exaggerated type of the Bourbon face, the nose being somewhat more aquiline, the forehead more receding, and the double chin (which occupied nearly one-third of his face) more conspicuous than in any other of the race.

He was stout and short, heavy and ungainly, a young old-man. The general expression of his face was kind and benevolent, but the low receding brow and monster double chin rendered it inexpressive, lumpish, and common-place. His person was awkward and ungainly ; his manners timid and abrupt ; his dress untidy ; his deportment undignified. He waddled in his walk ; his tread was heavy and quick ; he blinked with his eyes, which were extremely near-sighted ; breathed noisily ; snored in his slumber ; was always napping in his chair or carriage ; and allowed no consideration to interfere with his meals, which he devoured with the proverbial appetite of a Bourbon. His voice was harsh. He was inclined to corpulency, and was easily fatigued. In temper, he was either peevishly cross, or rapidly good-natured. To friendly eyes he was all very well ; but to satirists and enemies, it would be hard to imagine a better subject of ridicule.

His Character was humane, kind-hearted, and pious. His intellect rose not above mediocrity, yet was he well versed in geography, history, and travels. He was fond of all things connected with commerce or the sea, but his chief delight was either hunting or mechanics. He excelled in clock-work and lock-making ; kept all the time-pieces of Versailles in order, and had a

room fitted up with the apparatus of a whitesmith, where he employed himself for hours in filing, turning, and drilling, forging, hammering, and polishing iron, under the superintendence of a smith named Gamain, who assumed over him the tone and airs of a master. How innocent soever these amusements for a private individual, the people thought them undignified and unkingly. Nor, indeed, are bare arms, a grimed face, and leather apron, consistent with gilded furniture, fine dresses, and the stately etiquette of a royal court.

In full dress, Louis XVI. was accustomed to wear a violet-coloured silk coat, an embroidered taffeta and silver waistcoat, knee breeches, silk stockings, and shoes; a frilled shirt and ruffles; his orders and dress sword.

Marie Antoinette was in her 19th year, at the death of Louis the Well-beloved, and never was queen more fascinating. To the golden hair, the dazzling fairness, and exquisite complexion of a northern beauty, she united the grace and animation of the south. Her oval face was rendered remarkably characteristic, by the high clear forehead, aquiline nose, and full Austrian lip hereditary in her race. The penetrating glance of her fine blue eyes, the mingled pride and sweetness of her smile, and the dignity of her carriage, never allowed the beholder to forget, that the lovely woman before him was a queen. Such was the woman in her prime, but a change came over her as time advanced; she grew haughty and resolute, her brow was always frowning, and her lip scornful. Love had been turned to gall, the "guardian angel of France" had fallen from her high estate to the "hated Austrian."

Around her, in her private cabinet, were constantly gathered generals, courtiers, priests, and ladies. Near the doors, and behind the tapestries which hung before them, might be seen groups of young officers full of courage and ardour. Her invariable companions were Madame Diane de Polignac, the Countess Jules de Polignac her sister-in-law, and the princess de Lamballe.

Her Character. To an impulsive and unreflecting mind, she added a giddy frivolous disposition, always hankering for the excitement of balls and plays, pageants and crowds, adventures and intrigues. She had been brought up to despise the people and believe in the divine right of kings, notions wholly unsuited to the stirring times in which she lived. Her extravagance was unbounded; and whenever the ministers of the crown proposed retrenchment, she violently opposed their measures.

As the people were really distressed for food, no wonder they took offence at this thoughtless waste. Her contempt of court ceremonies shocked the stiff formalists of Versailles; but, as if in very ridicule of their artificial manners, the wayward beauty had her Swiss cottage and model farm at the Trianon, where she dismissed the queen and played the farmer's wife, employing herself in her dairy, and looking after her cows.

Other of her diversions were far more objectionable. Not content with having plays performed at Versailles, the Trianon, and Fontainebleau, she frequented all sorts of theatres; formed intimacies with actors and actresses; mixed up herself in the demonstrations of the pit and galleries; attended masque balls, and lent herself freely to the licentious familiarity allowed there, chatting with any masker who chose to address her, and not unfrequently joining in the jeers directed against herself or royal husband.

It must be remembered, that the young and imprudent queen was always surrounded by a large party inimical to Austria and the Austrian alliance, who watched her every movement, prepared to make capital of every indiscretion. This anti-Austrian party soon began to spread rumours injurious to the frivolous but not unvirtuous foreigner. Her gaiety was construed into guilty levity. Her walking abroad without hoops, and her requesting the guests who visited her to be seated, were looked upon as unpardonable improprieties. Her promenades in the Trianon wholly unaccompanied, were inter-

puted into assignations; and her extreme intimacy with the king's brother (afterwards Charles X.) was quite sufficient to give colour to the scandal of the court.

COSTUME OF THE PERIOD.

The most conspicuous part of the ladies' costume was their head dress. Marie Antoinette introduced feathers drooping over the head, and these feathers were a constant theme of ridicule.

The plumes were so lofty that carriages were made without seats, and ladies sat on the floor *à la Turque*. At places of public amusement they gave very great offence, as they wholly obstructed the view of those behind.

Léonard, the queen's hair-dresser, set no bounds to his absurdities. One very fashionable way of dressing the hair introduced by him was the *Coiffure à la serviette*: that is, a coarse whity-brown table-napkin placed in the head-dress amidst real vegetables, such as artichokes, cabbage-leaves, carrots, radishes, and turnips.

At no period, in the history of the world, has anything so absurd been devised as the head-dress in the reign of Louis XVI. Piles of tow were towered on the top of the head, covered with false hair, and powdered. Strings of vulgarly-large beads, fit only for a chandelier, flowers of the most staring character, broad silk bands, and great ostrich plumes, were added, till the whole mass rose two or three feet in height.

A head-dress was kept three weeks or more, and it may be imagined how disgusting pomatum and flour would become in that length of time; how sickening the "opening of a lady's head;" how filthy the pillow cases, chair-backs, and dress; and what swarms of vermin must have rebuked the folly of this absurd fashion.

In the streets, a very small bonnet was coquettishly fixed on the top of the head dress; high-heeled shoes, a scarf crossing the chest and fastened behind at the small of the back, and a small cane, completed the characteristic part of the costume.

The men wore frightful wigs with a large toupee, and a pig-tail hanging half-way down their back. About 1780, the hair, which before formed the pig-tail, was allowed to hang loose as low as the waist, when it was turned up into a huge knocker.

¶ In 1783-1784 every thing was *à la Malbrouck*. Hats, shoes, snuff-boxes, ribbons, ladies' dresses, men's coats, and even confections. It was Beaumarchais who set this fashion, and its rage was universal.

¶ The **Military** costume was after the Prussian strictness. A little three-cornered hat, small close curls, a stiff pig-tail, carefully hooked coat, altogether not unlike the wooden soldiers given as toys to children. It is hard to conceive how men so stiffly accoutred were able to perform their military duties.

SOCIAL LIFE IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XVI.

The reign of Louis XVI. ushered in a remarkable change in the social life of France. A more democratic tone pervaded every class of society, and the example of the queen herself, who hated etiquette, helped to render familiarity fashionable.

The forms of society became daily less and less rigid. The mistresses of the most fashionable houses disposed their drawing-rooms as *cafés*, with separate tables, refreshments, cards, and newspapers, for the amusement of their guests. The queen admitted men at her table, an innovation till then

unheard of; and the barriers of rank and station were thrown down, to admit literary, and other worthies of the middle class.

The decencies of life were more strictly observed, than in the preceding reign; much of the literature lately popular was laid aside. No one any longer read openly the licentious novels of Voisenon and Crébillon; and even Voltaire lost much of his popularity.

"Philosophy" felt the change, and exhibited it in its writings. In the regency, it was gross and licentious; it then grew ironical and argumentative; but it now assumed a sentimental and levelling tone. The enthusiastic Rousseau, the domestic Richardson and sentimental Sterne both English authors, the pastoral Florian, and St. Pierre the author of Paul and Virginia, were the favourite authors of the day. Madame Riccoboni says, that an author could not write ten lines without exclaiming *Oh virtue! oh goodness! oh humanity!*

Shepherd-life was the folly of the day. Every one was a nymph or swain, a Phillis or Damon, a Chloe or Colin. The charms of retired life, the beauty of virtue, the delight of philanthropy, were the topics of poetry, romance, and conversation. Prizes were established for maternal kindness, good conduct, and moral worth. The very diseases of fashionable life, the vapours, fainting fits, and hysterical tears, partook of the same mawkish character.

In painting, the voluptuous style of Watteau and Boucher gave place to the sentimental and domestic groups of Greuze. In the drama, the plaintive comedies of La Chaussée took the place of Destouches [*Day-toosh*].

LITERARY CELEBRITIES OF THE PERIOD.

Letters, at this period, boasted a vast phalanx of distinguished names in every department: The abbé Barthélemy had published his *Voyage of Anacharsis*, and St. Pierre his *Studies of Nature*. Lebrun, Roucher [*Roo-sha*], Chénier [*Sha-ně-a*], Gilbert, and especially Delille [*De-leel*], sustained the glory of French poetry. Ducis rendered himself illustrious on the stage, where Beaumarchais [*Bo-mar-shay*], by his *Marriage of Figaro*, had given a strong impulsion to the revolutionary movement.

The genius of the arts, which had slumbered in the last reign, revived under the chisels of Houdon and Chaudet [*Sho-day*]. And David introduced his new school of painting.

At no period were there such great actors: Talma had just appeared; and the Contats [*Cón-tarz*], Fleureys, Molés, and Brizards, carried the art of comedy to the highest pitch of excellence.

The sciences claimed many celebrated names. In the very first rank stood Lelande the astronomer, who was nearly 60 years of age at the breaking out of the Revolution, but lived to see the empire established; Monge, Lagrange, and Laplace, mathematicians; Lavoisier the inventor of modern chemistry; Foucroy, Vauquelin [*Voke-lar'n*] and Berthollet [*Bair-tol-lay*].

Guyton de Morveau had become known for his experiments on the disinfection of air; Coulomb by his researches on the loadstone; Delambre for his Metrical System and Astronomical works; and Bailly for his *History of Astronomy*.

Never were the manners of the educated more suave and gentle; French politeness was the model of good breeding; but the treasury was empty, the government rotten, immorality most flimsily veiled, and a discontented middle and murmuring lower class, showed by their ceaseless complaining and restless agitation, that a storm could not be far off.

In 1777, was published the first daily paper in France, called the *Journal de Paris*. It was reckoned a great prodigy, and contained an article on the *Almanach des Muses*, a short letter from Monsieur de Voltaire, the advertisement of a library, two or three miscellaneous articles, and a pun. The pun was the chief attraction, and continued so for some time.

The Abbé **Barthelemy** (1716—1795), the archeologist, learned in the Greek, Latin, Hebrew, Syriac, Chaldee, and Arabic, is known by his work entitled *The Travels of Anacharsis*, an historical novel, representing the manners, customs, laws, and events, of Greece and its colonies, in the age of Pericles. This work, which occupied the abbé for 30 years, is written in an elegant style, and presents a very pleasing tableaux of the period, though not without some grave inaccuracies.

In person, the abbé Barthélemy was large and well-proportioned. His face and head would have formed an excellent model for one of the seven sages of Greece. In the Revolution, he was denounced as an aristocrat, and thrown into prison; but was afterwards released, and died at the age of four-score.

Beaumarchais (1732—1799), son of a Paris clock-maker, and called the *Prince of Quarrellers*, was everywhere present, and did everything. He wrote plays, operas, and satires; painted well; was an excellent musician; a good actor and mechanic; took part in commerce, politics, and financial speculations; was a magistrate, a first-rate duellist, and I know not what besides. Nothing in short came amiss to him.

He is now known by his two comedies, the *Barber of Seville* in four acts, and the *Marriage of Figaro* in five acts, which caused an immense sensation when they were first brought out. The character of "Rosina," in the former comedy, was the queen's favourite part, which she often impersonated in private. The latter comedy was interdicted by the king, in consequence of its loose political sentiments; but the good-natured monarch was bullied out of his opposition; and, when the piece was produced, all Paris was beside itself because the king was obliged to give way to the pressure from without.

Gilbert (1751—1780) the satyrist, is especially noted for his misfortunes. A fall from his horse injured his head, and he became an idiot. Being taken to the hospital (*Hôtel Dieu*), he killed himself with a key.

THE GREAT REVOLUTION.

FROM 5TH MAY, 1789 TO 9TH THERMIDOR (27TH JULY), 1794.

George III. was King of England.

GREAT DAYS OF THE REVOLUTION,

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| 1789, June 17. | The <i>Tiers Etat</i> constitutes itself the <i>National Assembly</i> . |
| „ 20. | The day of the <i>Jeu de Paume</i> , when the Assembly takes an oath not to separate, till it had given France a constitution. |
| July 14. | Storming of the Bastille. |
| Oct. 5, 6. | King and National Assembly brought to Paris. This was the close of the ancient regime of the court. |
| 1791, June 20, 21. | Flight and capture of the king. |
| 1792, June 20. | Attack by Santerre on the Tuileries. |
| Aug. 10. | Attack on the Tuileries and downfall of the monarchy. |
| Sept. 2, 3, 4. | Massacre of the State-prisoners. |
| 1793, Jan. 21. | Execution of Louis XVI. |
| May 31. | Commencement of the Reign of Terror. |
| June 2. | The Girondists proscribed. |
| Oct. 16. | Execution of Marie Antoinette. |
| „ 31. | The Girondists led to execution. |
| 1794, April 5. | Downfall of Danton. |
| July 27. | (9 Thermidor) Downfall of Robespierre. |

The entire period divides itself naturally into two great epochs. The first begins on the 5th May, 1789, and terminates on the 20th September, 1792. This was the period of struggle,

when the people contended with the court and privileged orders, and overthrew them both. The *second* begins with the opening of the Convention (21 September, 1792), and terminates with the death of Robespierre (27 July, 1794). This was the period of anarchy, blood, and terror.

Chief Leaders of the Revolution.

The comte de Mirabeau from 1789 to 1791.

Danton, from the death of Mirabeau to 1793.

Robespierre from June, 1793, to the 27th July, 1794.

Danton was called the "strong arm," and Robespierre the "living sophism," of the Revolution; but the man of brute force quailed before the man of cold subtlety.

Next to these three, were St. Just, Couthon, Marat, Carrier, Hébert, Santerre, Camille-Desmoulins, Roland and his wife, Brissot, Barnave, Siéyès, Barras, Tallien, &c., &c.

CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY.

FROM 17TH JUNE 1789 TO 20TH SEPTEMBER, 1791.

On the 4th of May the three orders proceeded in solemn pomp to the cathedral church of Notre-Dame. The procession was magnificent in the extreme. The nobles and clergy were arrayed in all the splendour of feudal dignity, the commons in their severe and simple costume. The king and queen were received with ominous silence, and the only cry of welcome was "Long live the duke of Orleans!"

Opening of the States-General (5th May, 1789). The next day makes an era in the history of the world. It was the opening of the States-General at Versailles. The first sitting was held in the Salle-de-Menus [*Ma-nu*], and nothing could be more imposing than the spectacle that presented itself. There were 1145 deputies, of which 270 represented the nobles, 291 the church, and 584 the commons or *tiers-etat*. All were introduced according to the order and etiquette established in 1610. The nobles, covered with cloth of gold and lace, were conducted to the left of the throne; the clergy, in cassocks, large cloaks, and square caps, or in violet robes and lawn sleeves, were placed on the right; whilst the commons or third estate, in plain black, were ranged in front, at the end of the hall.

The galleries were filled with spectators, who loudly applauded the popular deputies, as they respectively made their appearance.

When all were seated, Louis XVI. arrived, followed by the queen, the princes, and a most brilliant suite [*sweet*]. His speech from the throne was listened to with profound attention, and closed with these words: "All that can be required of a sovereign, the best friend of his people, you may expect from me. That this may be an ever-memorable epoch for the happiness and prosperity of my kingdom, is the wish of my heart, the reward I expect for the uprightness of my intentions, and the love I entertain to my subjects."

He then retired, followed by the keeper of the seals and Necker the chief minister; and the deputies proceeded to business.

The first thing to be done was to settle the two moot points, how the states were to assemble, and how their votes were to be counted.

The clergy and nobles insisted, that each estate should meet in a separate chamber; that a majority of votes in a chamber should be reckoned the voice of that particular house; and that the vote of two estates out of three should in all cases be final. The commons waived the first point, but insisted that each deputy should have an independent vote, and that a majority of votes should settle every question.

Here began that long revolutionary struggle, which brought on the fall of the monarchy, but did not end till France had resigned herself to the despotism of the first Napoléon.

For three years, Marie Antoinette tried in vain to stem the current of popular opinion, but every attempt only added to her unpopularity.

The real question before the world was the "rights of man." Are kings made for the people, or the people for kings? It was settled by the constituent Assembly once and for ever. This was, in fact, the triumph of the Revolution, a great and glorious triumph. The Emperor Napoleon III. held his crown in recognition of the principle. The Reform Bill was the quiet reflex of it in our own land. Italy and Greece have just been struggling for the same. And there can be no doubt that all Europe will, ere long, with one voice insist upon its recognition.

17 June, 1789. The dispute went on from day to day and week to week without any prospect of a settlement, when the deputies of the *tiers-état*, on the motion of abbé Siéyès [*Sa-yez*], cut the matter short by arrogating to themselves the title of the **National Assembly**.

Oath of the Jeu-de-Paume* (20 June, 1789). Three days afterwards, the commons, joined by several of the liberal members of the two privileged orders, assembled in the Tennis-court, and sent an invitation to the rest of the deputies to join them.

Bailly, one of the Paris deputies, presided over the assembly, and, raising his hands on high, called upon the deputies present to follow his example, and repeat the oath he was about to pronounce. The whole assembly rose, and, stretching forth their right hands, took a solemn oath never to separate till they had given France a constitution.

On the 23rd June (1789) the king held a royal *séance*, and pronounced his condemnation of the National Assembly, which he

* The French for tennis is *jeu-de-paume* (hand-game.) The oath of the Jeu-de-Paume is the *Tennis-court Oath*, the anniversary of which was called the *Day of the Jeu-de-Paume* or the *Day of the Tennis-court*. It was a great holiday during the Revolution.

declared to be rebellious and illegal. He then promised to grant any needful reforms recommended by the *States-General*, and quitting the assembly, commanded the deputies to separate.

The nobles and clergy, for the most part obeyed, but the members of the *tiers* refused to quit their seats; and when the marquis de Brezé, grand master of the ceremonies, re-entered the hall, to repeat the king's command, Mirabeau [*Me-rar-bo*] rose up and cried aloud, "Go, tell your master, we are here by the order of the people, and will not go hence but at the bayonet's point." Then turning to the assembly he proposed, that "the members of the National Assembly should be pronounced inviolable;" a proposal which was carried without a single dissentient voice.

27 June (1789). Four days later, the duke of Orleans the king's cousin, with 47 members of the *noblesse*, and a large number of the clergy, joined the commons in the Tennis-court, and declared themselves the only national parliament, under the name of the **Constituent Assembly** (*Assemblée Constituante*).

Political Parties. There were in the Assembly three principal parties, called the *right*, the *left*, and the *centre*, according to the part of the house in which they sat.

The *right* were the ministerialists or government party; the *left* the republican or movement party; and the *centre* the moderates, who wanted to conform the constitution to the English model.

The left was split into numerous factions, in one of which Bailly and Lafayette were the chief leaders; in another, Dupont, Lameth, and Barnave, formed a triumvirate; in a third was Robespierre; and a fourth was composed of the partisans of the duc d'Orléans.

The leaders of the Assembly were Mirabeau [*Me-rar-bo*] and the abbé Sieyès [*Sa-yez*], who, for a time, dominated over all parties by the sovereignty of their genius.

Necker Dismissed (11th July, 1789). From the 20th June all things went on pretty smoothly till the 11th July, when the king took it into his head to dismiss Necker, badgered into this foolish measure by the queen, the comte d'Artois, the Polignacs, and the whole *Camarilla* of Versailles; but when Louis received back the seals of office, he requested the minister, as a personal favour, to quit France privately and without delay. Necker obeyed. He dined with his family as usual; and, after dinner, left the kingdom so quietly, that even his daughter knew not of his departure till next day.

The constant influx of troops into Versailles, added to the dismissal of the popular minister, produced a profound sensation in Paris. The citizens rose in insurrection; and Camille-Desmoulins harangued the people in the Palais-royal, exhorting them to arm in self-defence: "Citizens," said he, "there is not a moment to be lost. Paris and

Versailles are surrounded by troops. The Swiss and German guards are even now on their march to hew us down. We have no alternative but to fight or die." So saying, he plucked a leaf from a chestnut tree and stuck it in his hat. *To arms! to arms!* shouted the mob, as they followed the example of their leader. The busts of Necker and the duke of Orleans were carried in tumultuous procession through the streets. The former veiled in black crape, and the latter crowned with flowers. The military were called out; the German dragoons, called by the people *The Austrians*, committed great devastations, but the native forces fraternized with the people, whole regiments going over to the popular side. 48,000 of the mob, were formed into a *National Guard*, and Lafayette was chosen their commander.

Every soldier of the corps was decorated with a cockade of three colours, red, blue, and white. The first two being the colours of the city of Paris, and the third the royal livery, which was added by the special desire of Lafayette.

Storming the Bastille (14 July, 1789). The first overt act of the Revolution was the storming of the Bastille, a vast state-prison begun by Charles V. in 1369, and finished by his successor in 1383.*

The demolition of the strong fortress was the first triumph of the armed populace; and was celebrated as an annual *fête*, as long as the republic lasted.

As the day closed in, on Monday the 14th of July, a reckless multitude of rioters, having plundered the Hôtel-des-Invalides [*Armva-leed*] of 30,000 muskets and several pieces of artillery, rushed in mad excitement to the Bastille.

In former reigns, this state prison had covered many a foul deed. It held but few prisoners, 70 or 80 at the most, but they were generally men of mark, noblemen, priests, philosophers, authors, and publishers; not ordinary felons, but persons obnoxious to the "powers that be," or victims of court intrigue and family feuds. Fathers who wanted to get rid of their sons, and women who wanted to get rid of their husbands, could easily buy a "secret order" of the minister, and once within the walls, the prisoner was "like a dead man out of mind." In the reigns of Louis XIV. and XV., the fortress was generally crowded. One governor, Saint Florentin, alone of the former reign, used to boast that he had received 50,000 *lettres de cachet*, and though of late it had been little used, its name was identified with despotism and injustice.

* Under Charles V. the Bastille consisted simply of two isolated towers, and formed one of the gates of Paris. Two other towers, equally isolated, stood within the city. Charles VI. built four more towers, and connected the whole eight into one block by a thick wall. At the same time, he diverted the road running between the towers to the outside of the walls.

The outer walls of the Bastille were 40 feet thick at the base and 15 at the summit. Its garrison consisted of 82 pensioners [*Invalides*] and 32 Swiss. There were 30,000 lbs. of gunpowder in the cellars; and the approach to the castle was over two successive drawbridges.

At least 100,000 men, aided by troops, directed their efforts against this prison. The chains of the first drawbridge were cut, and a contest took place, in which one of the besieged and 150 of the people were killed. Delaunay, the governor, who had been prevented by one of his officers from setting light to the gunpowder, and blowing the fortress into the air, permitted the second drawbridge to be lowered, and the people rushed in pell-mell. Delaunay they hung with a lamp-rope, Major de Losme [*Lome*] they struck down with a hatchet; then, hacking off their heads, they raised them upon pikes, and carried them in triumph through the streets. In their progress, they met Mons. de Flesselles [*Fles-sell'*], the mayor. Him they shot, and the heads of the three victims they erected, as trophies, in three separate places of the city.

The garrison was spared, through the intercession of the soldiers who had joined the mob, and the prisoners were set free. There were but seven in the whole castle, one of whom had been a tenant for 30 years,* and four were forgers. The destruction of the Bastille began on the following day, amid the thunder of cannon, and the pealing of the *Te Deum*.

In all the Revolution, the women of France took a very active part. At the storming of the Bastille, they might have been seen amidst the fire and the shot, crying to arms, threatening with their fists the Swiss soldiers, and uttering maledictions over the slain. There they were with boiling pitch, dragging cannon, giving out cartridges, and inciting to deeds of death. There were as many women as men on the drawbridge, when the chains were cut asunder; and when the castle was demolished next day, as many women as men wielded pickaxes and crowbars.¹

Necker Recalled (15 July, 1789). The event, in itself, was of no great moment, but its moral effect was immense. The court was filled with consternation, and the king went, next day, to the National Assembly to make concessions.

He consented to recall Necker, and granted an amnesty to the insurgents. He was conducted home in triumph, and, in compliance with the wishes of the crowd, appeared on the balcony of the palace with his wife and son.

* Tavernier was his name. He had been 10 years in the Isle Ste Marguerite, and 30 in the Bastille. He was upwards of 90 years old, and, like De-Withe, another of the prisoners, had become an idiot.

Necker was received into Paris with unbounded enthusiasm. His whole route was an ovation; and when, at length, he presented himself at the window of the Guild Hall [*Hôtel-de-Ville*], the shouts were so loud and rapturous, that his daughter, Madame de Staël [*Star-el*], first wept, and then fainted.

Entry into Paris. On the 17th of July (1789) the king, having signified his intention to meet his ministers, left Versailles for Paris. The whole road was lined with soldiers of the National Guard.

At the barrier of the city, a deputation of electors and aldermen was in attendance; and Bailly, who had succeeded Mon. de Flesselles [*Fles-sell*], as mayor of Paris, presented the king, on a massive salver of silver gilt, the city keys, saying, "Sire, I present your Majesty the keys of the good city of Paris. They are the same which were offered to the fourth Henri. He conquered his people, but to-day the people have conquered their king."

The procession then moved on to the Hôtel-de-Ville [*Veel*], amidst the waving of tri-coloured flags, and the shouts of the unruly throng.

On alighting from his carriage, a tricoloured cockade was presented to the king, which he accepted and wore. He was then conducted to his seat, and informed, in a set speech, of the changes made in the constitution.

The king expressed his approval; confirmed the appointment of Bailly to the mayoralty, and of Lafayette to the command of the National Guard; granted an indemnity for the murder of Delaunay, De Losme [*Lome*], and De Flesselles; ratified the election of the Paris Commune;* and returned to Versailles.

The queen, in the mean time, was almost frantic with fear. She had sent for some of the courtiers to attend her, but was informed that all had fled. A silence, deep as death, filled the whole palace; and Marie Antoinette, with straining ear and beating heart, awaited the arrival of the courriers, who every hour brought tidings of the king.

Her joy at his return was frantic as her fear; but she plucked the cockade from his hat, and flung it down-stairs with indignation; and when the king told her of Bailly's address, drawing herself up to her full height, she exclaimed, "Were I king, I would have entered the unruly city, not as the conquered, but as the conqueror."

* The **Commune de Paris** was a municipal board entrusted with the supreme government of the city, the appointment of the civil officers, and the magisterial duties. It was presided over by a proctor (*procureur*); Chaumette [*Sho-mett*] was the first, and his "substitute" or "vice" was the famous Hébert [*Ha-bair*]. The next proctor was Robespierre, whose fall involved the abolition of the commune. The Hôtel-de-Ville was the place where the Commune de Paris held its sessions.

Foulon (22 July, 1789). Foulon, a man of noble family, who had filled several administrative functions, was made Intendant of Finance in 1771; and, on the retreat of Necker, in 1789, succeeded the "virtuous Genevese" as Comptroller-General, an office which he filled only three days. His unpopularity was a mania with the people. He fell into their hands a few days after the destruction of the Bastille, and was hung with a lamp-rope.

He had said, "If the rabble can't get bread, let them eat hay," and the saying sealed his death.

After being hung, the lifeless body was torn to pieces, and the head, severed from the trunk, was carried in triumph through the streets, with a whisp of hay in the mouth.

The same day, Berthier [*Bair-te-a*], his son-in-law, a fine young man only 32 years old, Intendant of Paris, was arrested by the mob.

As he was dragged through the streets, the head of his murdered father was thrust towards him to kiss. He, also, was taken to a lantern to be hung, but succeeded in extricating himself, and was stabbed to death with a hundred wounds.

When he fell, a savage plunged his hand into the dead body, and plucking out the heart, stuck it on the point of a sabre, and laid it on the table of the grand council in the Hôtel-de-Ville [*Veel*], where the electors were assembled.

These barbarities serve to show the spirit of the people, which had broken loose. Their wrongs, no doubt, were great, and many were in a state of starvation, but their savagery was that of wild beasts or Red Indians, rather than the outbreak of a civilized people.

The **Banquet** (1 October, 1789). The queen, court, and clergy, were indignant with the king for giving countenance to the late riots and elections. Many of the nobles had quitted France, and those who remained ceased not to aver that his person was in hourly danger. At length, the pliant Louis consented to send for his Flanders regiment, celebrated for its royalist sympathies.

A most brilliant reception was given them; their entry into Versailles was a perfect ovation. A grand banquet was provided for them by the royal body-guards, and every person of importance in the neighbourhood was invited.

The banquet was held, by the queen's consent, in the theatre of the palace and the saloon *d'Hercule*. The king, queen, and dauphin honoured it with their presence. It was a splendid affair; the enthusiasm was unbounded; white cockades (the royal badge) were distributed to the guests; and the tricolours were trampled under-foot.

This foolish defiance soon reached Paris, and produced the greatest ferment. Fear, distrust, and vengeance, wrangled in the hearts of

the people; and it required but a very little spark to set the city in a blaze.

Attack on Versailles (5, 6 October, 1789). That spark was not long wanting. It so happened, that there was a scarcity of food at this season; and a young girl, taking advantage of the disjointed times, paraded the streets of Paris with a drum, crying out "Bread! Bread!"

She was soon joined by some 7000 other women, who assembled before the Hôtel-de-Ville [*Veel*], and began to deliberate in noisy conference. The result of their deliberation was to go to Versailles, and ask the king for bread.

To Versailles they went, armed with muskets, pikes, pitch-forks, and swords, a motley crew, led by one of the heroes of the Bastille.

In the mean time, the 300 (as the electors were called) commanded Lafayette to repair to Versailles, also; and the General tracked the army of women with 15,000 of the National Guard.

As usual, the court at Versailles was completely ignorant of this movement, and the queen thought herself secure since the Flanders regiment had arrived. As for the king, he had arranged to spend the day hunting, and to Meuden went he for the purpose.

The women and the civil guards both arrived at Versailles on the 5th. The king was sent for, and returned without delay. A deputation of 12 women was admitted to his presence, and he signed an order for corn. So far all passed off smoothly.

At night, a gang of desperate ruffians, armed with guns and other weapons, arrived. They came not for bread but for pillage and mischief; and, at half-past five the morning following, presented themselves before the palace. They soon forced the gates, and, dividing themselves into two parties, proceeded one to the queen's and the other to the king's apartments.

The alarm is given, and the queen has just time enough to seize a few articles of clothing, and hurry along the corridor to her royal husband. "Down with the Austrian! Down with Madame Veto! Strangle her! Hang her to the lantern!" is vociferated by the rioters. The doors are assailed with hatchets and hammers; they are on the point of giving way; the rioters are about to rush in; when Lafayette arrives with the guard, and clears the palace.

By the advice of the Commandant-General the king shows himself on the balcony. A tremendous shout bursts from the crowd. "Long live the king! Long live the king!" Louis bows and retires. "The queen! The queen!" is the next cry; and the queen is conducted to the balcony by Lafayette. "To Paris! To Paris!" yell the rabble; and the General of the National Guard

comes forward again, to announce that the king will start for Paris at one o'clock, with the queen and royal family.

At the time appointed, the royal cortège started from Versailles, accompanied by the mob, yelling, shouting, and carrying upon poles the heads of the murdered guards.

On reaching the capital, the king was lodged in the Tuileries. It had not been tenanted for nearly a century, and was in a most dilapidated condition. His body-guard was removed; he was placed under the surveillance of the people, and was in fact a prisoner.

When Marie-Antoinette was talking over this insurrection with some of the court, the duchess de Polignac ingenuously asked, "How is it that the people are so clamorous for bread, when they can buy such nice cakes for twopence a-piece?" This was not unlike a remark made by our own princess Charlotte, who said she *would rather eat beef than starve*, and wondered that the poor should be so obstinate as to insist upon having bread when it was so scarce.

From the 6th of October the National Assembly was transferred to Paris, and held its meetings in the riding-school of the Tuileries. The galleries were daily filled with fish-women (poissardes), who were nick-named tricotteuses, because they always brought their knitting with them.

Fete of the Federation (14 July, 1790). No other great event occurred till the anniversary of the Storming of the Bastille, a day from which the people dated their freedom, and which they resolved to celebrate with unusual splendour. A grand festival was provided for the National Guards in the Champ-de-Mars [*Sharnd-Mars*].

On the eve of the anniversary, a sacred drama representing the story of the day and a *Te Deum* was performed in the cathedral of Nôtre-Dame.

Early the next morning, amid a pelting rain, the National Guards of the 83 departments with deputations from the army and navy, began to muster at the *Porte St. Antoine*, whence, with flying colours, and bands of music, they marched towards the place of rendezvous.

At the Tuileries, the municipality and National Assembly headed the procession, while the rear was brought up by a body of grey-haired veterans. Salvos of artillery were fired every few minutes.

A superb triumphal arch was erected at the entrance of the Champ-de-Mars, and some 400,000 spectators stood on the raised terraces to witness the ceremony.

At three o'clock, the king and royal family arrived. The king and president of the National Assembly were placed on two thrones, exactly equal in height and richness; while the queen and rest of the court were seated behind.

When the king took his seat, the tricoloured banners were unfurled; about 2000 musicians burst forth in a jubilant strain; cannons poured forth their continuous volleys; and the spectators shouted *Long live the king! The Nation for ever!*

In the centre of the area, an altar, half pagan and half catholic, had been erected. Here Talleyrand, bishop of Autun [*O-tuh'n*], assisted by 400 priests arrayed in white, and girded with tricoloured sashes, performed a solemn mass; during which, the banners were blessed and sprinkled with holy water.

Next, Monsieur Lafayette, as commandant-general of the National Guard, dismounted from his white charger, advanced to the altar and took the civic oath. Then raising his right hand towards the altar, (an example which was followed by the king, the soldiers, the multitude, and even by the queen and young dauphin,) he exclaimed in a loud voice, "I swear to defend the liberty of the nation." An oath which was repeated after him by the whole concourse.

At five o'clock, the royal family retired, and the crowd began to disperse. A banquet was provided for the chief of the federates; and at night, all Paris was illuminated.

For four days, the feasting, reviews, illuminations, and rejoicings continued. Paris was in ecstasies. It was a halcyon week, but it foreboded a storm. The king had been cheered, but his days were numbered, and his last hope flickered in the socket.

The very next morning, the extreme right of the Assembly made a jest of the whole proceeding; and on the 4th of September, Necker gave in his resignation.

After his resignation, Necker retired to Coppet in Switzerland, where he devoted himself to literary pursuits. His works were edited after his death by Madame de Staël, his daughter, who idolized him.

Necker was the founder of the Loan-Banks, technically called *Monts-de-piété* (Pawn-shops). The idea was borrowed from Italy, where certain pious individuals lent the poor small sums of money without interest, a pawn being deposited for security. In England, the pawnbroker, like any other shopkeeper, is a private tradesman; but in France, he is a government officer under the immediate eye of the Home Secretary and local Préfet. There are only 45 in all France. When a pawn is sold, all that it realizes over and above the loan is remitted to the depositor.

Flight of the King (20 June, 1791. His capture next day.) The position of Louis XVI. became daily more intolerable, 600,000 of the principal families of France had already gone to join, in foreign countries, the friends and relations of the queen; and at length, the king resolved to evade his jailors and join the fugitives. This was a very rash proceeding, and quite sufficient, if it failed, to provoke his unconditional imprisonment.

The plan was concocted by the Marquis de Boullé [*Boo-lay*] who, as governor of Metz [*Mess*] and Alsace, was virtually viceroy of the north-eastern frontier.

At midnight, on the 20 June, the king, queen, Madame Elizabeth, the dauphin, and the young princess, succeeded in quitting the Tuileries one by one, and in reaching the spot where a travelling carriage was in waiting for them. They passed the barrier, and took

the road to Montmédy; but on reaching Ste-Menehould [*Meen-hool'*] were recognized by Drouet [*Droo-a*], the son of a post-master, and compelled to alight at the house of Sausse [*Soce*], a grocer. Here they spent the night in a small chamber over the shop, and that night the fair hair of the queen turned white with grief.

When the flight of the royal fugitives was made known, all Paris was stupified; and the Assembly sent Péthion [*Pa-tè-on'g*] and Barnave [*Bar-narv*], two deputies, to conduct them back again. Péthion treated them with rudeness and insolence, but Barnave, moved with pity at their misfortunes, vowed from that day to advocate their cause.

On the 21st, the royal fugitives entered Paris amidst the hootings and execrations of the mob, and were again lodged in the Tuileries, but their position was greatly aggravated. All the functions of royalty were suspended; the movements of the whole family were narrowly watched; and guards remained in their rooms all night and day.

Notwithstanding this vigilance, Marie Antoinette found means to communicate with her chivalrous young deputy, who pleaded hard in the Assembly against the proposed indictment of the king for "treason against the people."

When the National Assembly was dissolved a few months afterwards, Barnave [*Bar-narv*] came to bid the queen farewell, before he quitted the capital. He then told her he had risked his head in her cause, but without regret. They parted in sorrow, to meet no more. The young queen and the young commoner perished within a few days of each other on the same scaffold.

Petition of the Champ-de-Mars (17 July, 1791). When the question of the king's flight was formally brought before the Assembly, Barnave [*Bar-narv*] proposed that it should be construed into a tacit abdication, a proposal which was supported by all the leaders of the extreme left.

The Jacobins, on the other hand, insisted on regarding it as an act of treason; and, in order to enforce their view upon the house, drew up a petition to the people, which they took to the Champ-de-Mars [*Sharnd Mars*], and laid on the "Altar of the Country" for signature. The prayer of the petition was the formal dethronement of the king.

The crowd on the occasion was immense. Camille-Desmoulins [*Ca-meel Da-moo-lah'n*] and Danton availed themselves of this opportunity to address the people, and excited them to insurrection. The danger became threatening. Lafayette and Bailly were obliged to interfere. The red flag was unfurled; the National Guard was assailed with a shower of stones, and fired on the mob. The tumult was quelled, but Lafayette and Bailly lost for ever their popularity.

Treaty of Pilnitz (27 July, 1791). It was now palpable, that all hope of restoring the ancient order of things was impossible. The emigrants were fully sensible of this impossibility, and at length concerted together to put down the revolution by force of arms.

Monsieur, who had retired to Brussels, assumed the title of Regent; the emperor, king of Prussia, and count of Artois [*Ar-twor*] met at Pilnitz, in Saxony, on the 27th of June, and there signed the famous treaty, which demanded of France the entire restoration of the king, and dissolution of the National Assembly, under the threat of invasion. This declaration only served to irritate the nation, and to arm them in self-defence.

Close of the Constituent Assembly. The Assembly having been organized for two years and three months, and having laid the foundation of the Constitution in 3250 decrees, accepted by the king, resolved to close their sessions, and make room for a Legislative House.

The dissolution was fixed for the 30th September (1791). The king attended in person, pronounced a most touching address, was heard with enthusiasm, and received with respect.

The president then declared the Assembly dissolved and its mission over. Next day, it was replaced by the *Legislative Assembly*, which was designed to reform the civil and criminal laws in accordance with the spirit of the new constitution.

A decree provided that no member of the old Assembly should be eligible to hold office in the new; consequently, Bailly was deposed from the mayoralty of Paris, and Lafayette from the command of the National Guard; but, in order to testify its regard for the latter, the city of Paris presented to him a statue of Washington, and a sword forged from an iron bar of the Bastille.

PRINCIPAL MEASURES of the CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY.

- I. **Political.** (1) *August, 1789.* All exclusive privileges were abolished; and every man in the state was pronounced eligible to any office his merits could obtain.
- (2) *January, 1790.* France was divided into 83 *departments*, all pretty well of the same size; each department was subdivided into districts, now called *arrondissements*; each district into *cantons*; and each canton into municipalities or *communes*. Every commune had its own magistrates; and every district and department an administrative council and executive directory. Cantons were mere electoral divisions for the nomination of deputies and magistrates.
- (3) *February, 1790.* Every remnant of feudalism was swept away.
- (4) *March, 1790.* were abolished the custom of arresting political offenders by "Sealed letters" (*lettres de cachet*), and the oppressive Salt-tax called *Gabelle*.
- (5) *April, 1790.* Trial by Jury was introduced.
- (6) *May, 1790.* The right of declaring peace and war was taken from the king and vested in the National Assembly.
- (7) *June, 1790.* All titles of nobility, all orders of rank, and all badges of distinction, such as stars, ribbons, and armorial bearings, were abolished.
- (8) *July, 1790.* The Game-laws were repealed; the Jews were relieved of their personal tax; and protestants had their estates restored which had been confiscated in consequence of their religious opinions.
- (9) *September, 1790.* The *parlements* of France were finally suppressed.
- (10) *October, 1790,* were abolished the cruel criminal penalties of Louis XIV.
- (11) *January, 1791.* All corporations and guilds were abolished; and free-trade was introduced.

- (12) *March, 1791.* Paris was subdivided into sections; and the names of every inhabitant of each house were ordered to be inscribed on the hall-door.
- (13) *May, 1791.* The impost, called *octroi*, levied on goods entering Paris through the city gates, was repealed.
- (14) *June, 1791.* Torture was declared illegal; and the violation of the secrecy of letters declared a criminal offence.

I. In Finance the reforms were equally radical. It was decreed at the very outset that all taxes were to be apportioned and raised without regard to rank or person. Then followed the approval of a loan.

- (2) *November, 1789.* A decree ordered the publication of the public accounts.
 - (3) *December, 1789.* A National Bank was established.
 - (4) *March, 1790.* Monsieur Talleyrand, bishop of Autun, proposed that the clergy should renounce to the state all their lands and possessions. The clergy, as a body, strenuously resisted this proposal; but the deficiency of the exchequer was frightful, a national bankruptcy imminent, and the only means of tiding over the difficulty was by the confiscation of the church property. Accordingly, the proposal of Talleyrand was accepted. The ministers of religion were henceforth paid by government salaries, and the expenses of public worship defrayed by the public purse.
 - (5) *April, 1790.* The question was raised, what was to be done with the confiscated lands? A forced sale would not do, as it would greatly depreciate the value of the property; neither would it do to wait for rents. In this dilemma, Bailly proposed that the Assembly should issue debentures to the value of the lands; and as the property would be nominally assigned over to the bondholders, he proposed to call the bonds *Assignats*. These Assignats chiefly consisted of promissory notes to the amount of 100 francs (£4) each; some however represented a smaller sum and others a larger. The first issue amounted to 20 millions sterling. The facility of providing income by this means soon led to abuse. Assignats were issued without any property to back them; many were forged; and in 1796 they were called in and redeemed at the rate of one franc for thirty.
 - (6) *October, 1790.* These Assignats [*As-sin-yar*] were declared to bear no interest.
 - (7) These measures in the early part of 1791 were followed by a series of laws respecting coining, revenue-management, and the promotion of industry.
- III. Church Reforms. A committee of the Assembly appointed to reform church matters, made a complete overthrow of the old system.
- (1) Catholicism was declared no longer the exclusive religion of the state, but all ministers of every denomination were treated alike, and were paid salaries by the government.
 - (2) The civil jurisdiction of the bishops was abolished; monastic orders suppressed; and monks and nuns were released from their vows.
 - (3) Each department of France was constituted a *see*, and all the clergy of the see were paid by the commune of the department.
 - (4) The clergy like the laity were made amenable to the civil courts, without appeal to the pope or any ecclesiastical authority.
 - (5) Every clergyman was required to take an oath that he accepted the constitution and would uphold it. This oath led to the emigration of many; and subsequently to enactments of great rigour against the malcontents.

¶ Such were the principal items of the constitution. Many of them were wholly unexceptionable. The basis of all was the sovereignty of the people. If the nation had remained quiet, no one would or could have blamed a revolution which abolished so many evils, and provided a constitution with so much that was truly excellent. But the court, and the privileged classes resisted; resistance provoked opposition; the evil passions were excited; designing demagogues stirred up rebellion; and when once the rulers of the people began to enrich themselves by spoliation, and defend their power by murders, it became a mere question with them whether they should halt, or be themselves cast down and trampled under foot.

THE FOUNDATION OF CLUBS. (1790—1791).

The creation of Clubs at this crisis greatly multiplied the seeds of discord. These clubs were at first private meetings, where people of similar political views met together to talk over the events of the nation.

¶ The first and most celebrated was that of the Breton deputies, held at the ancient convent of the Jacobins, and hence called the *Jacobin Club*. It acquired, in a short time, an amazing influence, and established affiliated clubs in every province of France. Its moral power was so great in the palmy days of the Revolution, that the people, the magistracy, and even the National Assembly, were swayed by it.

Strange as it may seem, it is nevertheless true, that the Jacobins were *royalists* at first. They wished to depose Louis XVI., I allow, but they would have placed the Duke of Orleans on the throne, with abridged powers and prerogatives. As the Revolution advanced, their political views became more and more democratic, till, at last, the word Jacobin became synonymous with red-republican.

To the Jacobins belonged Chénier [*Sha-ně-a*] the author of *Charles IX.*, the poets Cubières [*Ku-bě-air*] and Chamfort, Laharpe as violent as Diderot [*De-dă-ro*] in his hatred of the Supreme Being, Sedaine, and the good Andrieux. David [*Dav-edē*] the painter was one of the same clique, Vernet [*Vair-nay*], Larive, and Talma the great actor. Laïs the famous vocalist, and Louis-Philippe the future king, were the door-keepers of the Paris club.

Such were the leading members; but, from first to last, Robespierre was its living unity; and this man, simply by the force of circumstances, without genius, oratorical power, or even a daring spirit, rose to be master, not only of the Jacobins, but of Paris and all France.

The Jacobin clubs were finally closed on the 11th November, 1794.

¶ A branch of the Jacobins, first called the *Club of '89*, and then the *Journalists' Club*, held its meetings in a part of the Palais Royal. Lafayette, Bailly the mayor, the abbé Siéyès, and Mirabeau, were members of this club. Though called "the Club of '89," it was not founded till 1790.

¶ Another branch society was the *Feuillant's Club*, held in the convent of the Feuillantes [*Few-yarn't*] near the Tuileries, and composed of the most moderate of the republicans.

When Barnave was sent to Verennes [*Var-renn*], to convey the king and royal family to Paris after their flight, he was so touched by their misfortunes that he resolved to befriend them; and when he found the Assembly bent on death, induced Dupont, Lameth, and others, to separate from the Jacobins, by way of protest against their regicidal intentions.

¶ The *Cordeliers*, so called from the convent of the Cordeliers [*Cor-de-lě-a*] where their meetings were held, was another very important club, but its influence was limited to Paris.

Its leading members were the giant Danton; the scarcely less notorious Camille-Desmoulins [*Car-meel Da-moo-lah'n*], who gave the signal for the attack on the Bastille; Hébert [*Ha-bair*], a check-taker at one of the theatres, and editor of the infamous journal called "Père Duchêne" [*Pair Du-shane*]; and Marat [*Mar-rar*] the fop, a dainty-fingered, mean, and blood-thirsty young surgeon.

The Cordeliers were generally opposed to the Jacobins. It was this club that plotted the insurrection, which marked the close of the Reign of Terror. It was this club also which first demanded the abolition of royalty, and the institution of a free republic.

The Cordeliers affected extreme poverty and meanness. Their room of meeting was miserably lighted with a few wretched candles; and all the

members dressed in the most squalid attire. This club was nick-named the *Pandemonium*, and Danton the *arch-fiend*.

At first, the Cordeliers went further than the Jacobins in their republican principles; but, after a time, they were left so far behind, that they were looked upon as lukewarm, and even traitors to the popular cause.

The Cordeliers were organized in 1790; lost all their influence when Danton was led to execution; and the club was finally closed by the Convention.

Journals. Akin to the clubs were the Journals of the day, the enormous increase of which was one of the most striking features of the Revolution. Some of them were published daily, and others weekly or more often. Some of the more violent of the weekly Journals appeared in *red* wrappers.

In 1777, there was but one daily paper in all France; some 23 years later, there were as many as 900. The following list gives the names of the most prominent:

The Acts des Apôtres

Ami du Peuple

Annales Patriotiques, by *Mercier* and

Curra

Annales Politiques et Littéraires, by *Linguet*

Babillard

Bonnet Rouge

Chronique de Paris, by *Condorcet*, the best written of all

Communes de Paris

Courrier National

„ de Paris à Versailles

„ „ Provence

„ „ Versailles à Paris

Esprit des Gazettes

„ des Journaux
&c., &c., &c.

Gazette de Paris

Général Journal d'Europe

Héraut de la Nation

Journal de la Cour et de la Ville

„ des Débats and des Décrets

„ Ecclesiastique

„ des Etats Généraux, by *Mira-*

beau, which existed only one week, when it was suppressed by the king for a most intemperate attack upon Necker. It afterwards appeared as *Le Courrier de Provence*

Journal Général de France

The Journal de la République

„ des Révolutions de Paris, the most extensively read of all

„ Universe

„ des Versailles

London Journal of the Lyceum, published in London, by *Brissot*

Mercure Politique

Moniteur, first published 24th November, 1789

Observateur

Patriot

Patriot Français, by *Brissot*

Père Duchêne, by *Hébert*, containing the most exaggerated republican sentiments, and circulating the most horrible innuendos against the queen

Point de Jour

Publiciste Parisien, by the mean and dirty *Marat*. This was one of the most formidable of all the Journals.

Its name was twice changed, first into

L'Ami du Peuple, and then into *Le*

Journal de la République

Révolutions de Paris, by *Prudhomme* and *Tournon*

Sappeur dans le Bataillon de Carmes

Sentinelle du Peuple

Spectateur

Vieux Cordelier

&c., &c., &c.

CELEBRITIES.

Comte de **Mirabeau** (1749—1791) sometimes called the *Hurricane*, and sometimes the *Demosthenes* of France, from the overpowering force of his eloquence, possessed an energy and decision which yielded to no opposition, and an audacity of purpose which shrank from no difficulty.

On leaving school he entered the military profession, and became the gayest of the gay; but soon he abandoned his profession, and married an heiress. It would be profitless to follow him through the next 16 years of his life, in which he was guilty of almost every crime, and was confined in almost every prison of France.

At the breaking out of the Revolution, he was elected deputy of the *Tiers-état* for Aix, and soon made himself the foremost man of France. His name was in everybody's mouth, and everything was *à la Mirabeau*. At length, prosperity and flattery made him wish for aristocratic distinctions, and he entered into a contract with the court to arrest the Revolution, on condition of receiving £1600 a week; but his sudden death put an end to his career.

¶ Mirabeau [*Me-rar-boo'*] was so corpulent that he was jocosely called the *Tub*, and he was as ugly as he was fat. His head was large, features massive, lips thick; he had a tiger-like face, deeply pitted with small-pox, throat short and thick, and shoulders high even to deformity; but, with all these defects, there was something dignified and even agreeable in his mien and general appearance.

During his short illness, the king and queen sent three times a day to enquire after his health; and half Paris was at his door. He was buried with great pomp in the Panthéon, but two years afterwards his body was exhumed by the mob, and cast into the streets. Mirabeau and Foy (in the reign of Louis XVII.) were the two greatest political orators of France. The last words of Mirabeau were "Let me die to the sounds of delicious music."

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

FROM 1ST OCTOBER, 1791, TO 20TH SEPTEMBER, 1792. *George III. King of England.*

The Legislative Assembly was composed of 745 members, elected by the people; and commenced its sessions on the 1st of October, the very day after the Constituent Assembly dissolved itself. The clubs had so greatly influenced the choice of the election, that the new house was even more democratic than the former.

The *right* was occupied by the few monarchy-men which had been returned. This small minority consisted of *Feuillants*, officers of the army, and some National Guardsmen.

The *centre*, by the friends of order, a clique even more meagre and insignificant than the former.

The *left*, by the *Girondists*, famous for their orators, and so called because their most conspicuous members were deputies of the Gironde department. Among them was an extreme party, which afterwards united with the most violent of the Jacobins and Cordeliers, and formed the *Mountain*.

This assembly was convened for the purpose of revising the laws; but from the very first it forgot its mission, and applied itself exclusively to a war with royalty, taking for its motto, "Liberty or Death."

THE GIRONDIST MINISTRY (1791—1792).

The king, pressed by circumstances, formed a Girondist Ministry, the most remarkable members of which were general Dumouriez [*Du-moo-rè-a*] and Roland.

The *former*, accustomed from his youth to intrigue, was determined to rise at any cost. He was bold, fickle, and without principle; of an active genius, and rich in resources. The *latter* was an enthusiastic republican, and joined austerity of morals to the greatest simplicity of habits. He had no great genius; and allowed himself to be governed by his wife, who was in fact the soul of the whole party.

War with Austria (1792). The first measure of the new

cabinet was to declare war with the new emperor of Austria, a nephew of Marie Antoinette.

Austria and Prussia, fearing that the revolutionary spirit of France might spread into their own dominions, arrogantly demanded of the new Assembly three things: The restitution of Venaission to the pope; of Alsace to Germany; and of the confiscated church property to the catholic clergy.

The first operations of the war being unfavourable to France, the Legislative Assembly pronounced the nation to be in danger, and commanded a camp of 20,000 men to be established under the walls of Paris.

The king put his *veto* on this measure. Roland wrote to him a very insolent letter; and Louis had the spirit to dismiss his ministers, and chose a new cabinet from among the Feuillants [*Feu-e-yarn't*].

THE FEUILLANT MINISTRY (1792).

June 20 (1792). The two great anniversary festivals of the Republicans were the 20th of June and the 14th of July. The latter commemorated the Storming of the Bastille; the former, the foundation of the National Assembly and flight of the king.

On the 20th of June, 1792, both these events had a significant commemoration. The Legislative Assembly was first mobbed, and then the king bearded in his own palace.

Some 30,000 of the people met together to "honour" the day. They had armed themselves with pikes and other impromptu weapons; placed themselves under the conduct of Santerre [*Sarn-tair*], a common brewer; procured a number of flags and placards bearing the most brutal inscriptions; and promenaded the streets, singing revolutionary songs.

At length they reached the Hall of Legislature, where one of their number made a disgusting speech, the object of which was the recall of the late ministry; but little could be heard, as the room was besieged within and without by a rabble of women, boys, and men, singing the "*Ça ira*" [*Sar era*],* and shouting *The people for ever! Down with the Veto! Three cheers for the Republic!*

After they had insulted the deputies to their hearts' content, Santerre conducted them to the Tuileries, to over-crow the fallen

* The "*Ca Ira*" was one of the most popular revolutionary songs, composed for the *Fête de la Fédération* in 1789, to the tune called "*Le Carillon National*," which Marie Antoinette was for ever strumming on her harpsichord. The refrain ran thus:

"Ha! Ha! It will speed! It will speed! It will speed! (*ça ira*)

With one voice shout the people from morning till night!

Ha! Ha! It will speed! It will speed! It will speed!

Resistance is vain, it is sure to succeed!"

"*Ca ira*" was the rallying cry borrowed by the Federalists from the great Dr. Franklin, who used to say, in reference to the American revolution, *Ah! Ah! ça ira! ça ira!*,

majesty or grace. The brutal mob thumped on the palace doors with hatchets, pikes, and hammers, till the king ordered them to be thrown open; when in rushed the crowd pell-mell, but was not a little stupified to see Louis himself standing fearlessly before them.

This boldness disarmed them, but they mustered up sufficient impudence to present two petitions, to which they demanded the royal sanction. "No," said the king, with more than usual magnanimity, "this is neither the way nor the time to obtain concessions."

Whatever the original intentions of these ruffians, this firm and temperate behaviour turned aside any attempt at personal violence; but one of the mob from behind thrust towards the king, on a pike, a Red Cap, the filthy emblem of the revolution; and another offered him a glass of "ordinary wine." Louis put the cap upon his head, and drank the wine without hesitation. *Bravo!* yelled the mob, *Long live the king!* till the mayor came up, and induced them quietly to retire.

This was the very acmé of popular insolence. The people had befooled their sovereign to the top of their bent; and from this moment, the whole prestige of royalty was trampled in the dust.

When general Lafayette was informed at Sedan of these events, he hastened to Paris, and implored the king to accept his escort to Compiègne [*Kone-pe-ain*], where he promised to protect him from similar insults; but Louis mistrusted the revolutionary soldier, and refused to accept his offer.

Brunswick's Manifesto (25 July, 1792.) These violences, and the temperate conduct of the king were not without their influence. The fury of the mob had burnt out, at least for a time; and probably tranquillity might have been restored, had it not been for a manifesto of the duke of Brunswick, equally insulting and ill-timed.

The duke was commander-in-chief of the united armies of Prussia and Austria, amounting to 130,000 men, and sent against France for the express purpose of putting down the revolution. He was lying at Coblenz at the time, and stated in his manifesto that "he had been commissioned by the sovereigns of Europe to lay Paris in the dust, and crush the republican vipers under his heel."

It may be well imagined, that this insolent tirade excited in France the most unbounded indignation; and did more, than any other single thing, to pave the way to the bloody tragedy of the king's death.

August 10 (1792). On the 10th of August the tocsin sounded the signal of revolt. The Tuileries had been placed in a state of defence in anticipation of an attack. The interior was guarded by 900 Swiss and a troop of gentlemen, the court-yards and outposts by several battalions of the National Guards.

Early in the morning, Mandat [*Marn-dah*] the General of the National Guard had been murdered, and Santerre, the brewer, appointed to his post. The court was thus deprived of its most influential defender, and a traitor to the royal cause was substituted in his place.

As the day advanced, the insurgents, maddened by the speeches of Danton, pointed their cannon against the Tuileries. The king passed his defenders in review, but was informed that his only hope of safety was in the Hall of the Legislative Assembly. Thither, therefore, he went with his wife and children; and was commanded to wait in the reporter's lobby (called the *logograph*), a small recess behind the president's chair.

The Marseillaise. Among the most violent of the insurgents was a body of men from Marseilles, invited over by Madame Roland to overawe the National Guard, and to take the advance of the 20,000 men voted by the Girondist ministry.

These 500 Marseillais entered Paris singing a song recently composed by a young artillery officer, named Rouget Delisle [*Roo-zja De-leel*], and proceeded at once to the Champs-Elysées [*Sharns A-lee-zay*], where a banquet awaited them.

Their song became immensely popular; flew from city to city; was played in all the public orchestras; sung at the opening and close of all the clubs; adopted as the revolutionary hymn; and called the Marseillaise, from the persons who introduced it. When the king left the Tuileries, a furious scuffle ensued between the Swiss Guards and the insurgents. The guards succeeded, at first, in driving back the people; but the Marseillais directed the cannon on the palace, and made themselves masters of the gates. The Swiss were overpowered, and hacked to pieces with the most wanton cruelty.

In the midst of this confusion, a cry was raised that the palace was on fire, and nothing could exceed the horror of the moment. The hall, the vestibule, the stairs, were choked with dead bodies; the floors and pavements were a pool of blood; and the cellars were filled with intoxicated wretches, who had forced their way thither to indulge their beastly desire for drink. Everywhere were thievish hands plundering, ravaging, and destroying. There were fishwomen with dishevelled hair stripping the dead, and throwing the plundered carcases from the windows. There were women sitting on pieces of ordnance; women decorated with strips of black and scarlet, in token of having assisted in the murder of the Swiss guards; others with pistols in their girdles, and sabres in their hands. The Marseillais were marching about the gardens carrying on their pikes the heads of the royalists, and singing their revolutionary hymn. Thousands and thousands were shouting, yelling, howling, and rioting, in the wild

madness of their triumph. It was indeed a pandemonium, which would have afforded matter for a Dante or a Milton.

The refrain of this really beautiful hymn, the Marseillaise, is as follows :

*Aux arms, citoyens ! Formez vos bataillons !
Marchons ! marchons ! qu'un sang impur abricuve nos sillons.*

Arm, citizens, arm ! March, march to the slaughter !
The blood of the craven your furrows shall water.

Louis XVI. imprisoned (14 August, 1792). For the next two or three days the insurgents had everything their own way. They demanded that an insurrectional Municipality should be appointed, in the place of the Council of the Commune ; the justices of peace were suspended from their functions ; the état-majors of the gendarmerie were disbanded ; the public statues of the kings of France were broken to pieces ; and the foreign ambassadors left the city given over to anarchy and confusion.

On the 14th August, the new Municipality went to the Assembly to be sworn in. They were preceded by three banners, inscribed with the words *Patrie, Liberté, Égalité* ; and the spokesman terminated his harangue by demanding two things : The instant deposition of the king ; and the convocation of a National Convention, to provide a new constitution.

In compliance with these demands, Louis, with his wife, children, and sister, was committed to the Temple Tower ; the Girondist ministers were recalled ; and an extraordinary convention was convened for the 21st of September, to deliberate on the affairs of the nation.

2, 3, 4 September (1792). Meanwhile the Prussian army, supported by 36,000 Austrians, 10,000 Hessians, and 6000 emigrants, entered France. Longwy fell into their hands ; Verdun [*Vair-duh'n*] was bombarded ; and the road to Paris was open.

The nation was in consternation. Danton was the leader of the day, a gigantic republican, familiarly called the *Mirabeau of the mob*. He was Mirabeau cast in a more vulgar mould.

The news of the taking of Verdun arrived at Paris on the night of the 1st September. Danton swore that the aristocrats were in league with the foe ; and that the only hope of safety was in cutting off the enemy within the camp. The massacre began on the 2nd of September, at the Abbaye, with the murder of 30 non-juring priests and the Swiss soldiers imprisoned since the 10th of August. It continued for the next two days. Three hundred hired assassins, wearing a tricoloured scarf round their waist, and a wheat-ear in the button-hole of their jackets, were appointed to dispatch the victims.

In order to give some show of legality to this wholesale slaughter, a mock tribunal was held in the court of the Abbaye, presided over

by an usher named Maillard [*My-yar*]. The victims were dragged from the different prisons before this arbiter of their fates. If he said à *Coblentz* they were acquitted, if à *l'abbaye* they were led forth into the yard, and felled by the hired assassins, like oxen, on the spot.

Among the persons massacred, on this occasion, was the beautiful princess de Lamballe, whose only crime was her attachment to the queen. Not content with hacking off her head, some brutal ruffians stuck it on a pike, and carried it bleeding to the Temple Tower, where the royal family was confined.

The dreadful spectacle threw the queen into convulsions ; but there was no pity in the heart of these sanguine wretches. For three days, delicate women, Christian priests, and aged noblemen, guiltless of all crime except that of noble birth or loyal hearts, were immolated to the demon of popular fury.

As many as eight or ten thousand fell by the hands of these authorized assassins ; and the massacres, thus commenced in the capital, were copied in the provinces.

Theft and murder were fearlessly committed upon the great and noble by any one who lusted for their wealth, or envied their position, or owed them an ill-turn. Not content with plunder, the senseless madmen wantonly destroyed whatever they could not pillage ; and works of art, antiques of great value, statues, paintings, tissues of Gobelin tapestry, Sèvres china, and other valuables, were unhesitatingly destroyed.

In all the history of mankind, nothing more horrible and wantonly cruel has been left on record, than the massacres of September, 1792, by a people pluming themselves on their politeness and civilization. And the men who planned and executed this diabolical slaughter have gained for themselves the infamous appellation of *Septembriseurs* (*Septembrisers*), the September-men.

¶ Meanwhile the Prussians continued to advance, and Dumouriez was appointed commander-in-chief of the National army.

The new general concentrated his men near the village of *Valmy*. The Prussians began the attack ; were routed ; and the honour of the day remained with the revolutionists.

The duke of Brunswick was thunderstruck ; he never anticipated such a reception ; and was obliged to beat a precipitate retreat.

The French re-entered *Verdun* and *Longwy* ; the enemy passed the Rhine at *Coblentz* ; other successes were achieved ; and the Revolution was wholly triumphant.

CHIEF MEASURES OF THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

(1) On the 28th October, 1791, a decree was passed declaring *Monsieur* (that is the king's brother) deprived of his right of the regency unless he returned to France within 2 months.

(2) On the 8th November, all emigrants who absented themselves from the nation after the commencement of the new year were proscribed; and all officers abandoning their public functions, without consent of the Assembly, were to be accounted deserters.

(3) On the 29th November, all ecclesiastics who refused to submit to the constitution were outlawed.

N.B. The Constituent Assembly had accorded to the king the right of *veto*, that is of negating any decree, and he exercised this right in reference to the last two measures. The republican leaders made capital of this bugbear to alarm the people. Very few knew what it meant, some thought it was a new tax, some a person whom they wanted to hang on a lamp-post, some imagined it to be a sort of pestilence, and inquired how far it had spread; all blamed the king and queen, who were nicknamed by the political song-writers *Monsieur* and *Madame Veto*.*

NATIONAL CONVENTION.

FROM 21 SEPTEMBER, 1792 TO 26 OCTOBER, 1795.

On the 21st of September, the Legislative Assembly gave way to the National Convention, composed of 721 deputies. Two Englishmen (the celebrated Dr. Priestley and Tom Paine the infidel,) were returned, but the former declined to take his seat.

On the very opening day (22 September), the Convention declared "the eternal abolition of Royalty in France;" abolished all titles of rank; commanded that all people should be addressed by the one term *Citizen*; announced that the year 1792 was to be called the *Year 1*; and that the Era of the Revolution would in future take the place of the Christian era as a date.

The Revolutionists said not only *Citizen A B* and *C*, mentioning the name, but *Citizen President*, *Citizen Governor*, *Citizen General*, and even *Citizen Cobbler*, *Citizen Chimney-sweep*, and *Citizen Shoe-black*. Louis XVI. was called *Citizen Capet*, and Marie Antoinette, after the death of her husband, *Citizen Widow*, or *Citizen Widow Capet* [*Cap-pay*].

The Commune went still further, and prohibited the use of the word "God," for which they substituted the expression "Supreme Being."

Such Christian names as Louis, Philippe, Jean, and so on, were changed into *Scævöla*, *Gracchus*, *Aristidès*, or some other classic name. Similarly, the names of half the streets of France were changed into something which served as a memento of the Revolution.

¶ One of the absurdities of this movement appeared in the affectation of servants, who were termed *employés* or *domestics*. They thought it derogatory to be summoned by a bell, and therefore the "master or mistress" had to go to them as equals, and beg the "favour" of their doing what was required.

Political Parties. The Convention was divided, like the Legislative Assembly, into two principal factions, the *Girondists* and *Mountaineers*. The former were the more moderate, and, as supporters of the ministry, sat on the ministerial or *right-hand* benches.

* One of the most popular songs of the day was upon these nicknames. The second verse runs thus:

Monsieur Veto avait promis
D'être fidèle à sa patrie;
Mais il y a manqué
Ne faisons plus cartie.

Monsieur Veto swore he'd bide
To the Constitution true
But he cast his oath aside,
Teaching us the like to do.

The queen was called *Madame Veto*, a nickname she always went by, till she changed it for *Widow Capet*.

To this party belonged the celebrated Condorcet and Mon. Brissot; the latter of whom was their leader, and hence the faction is sometimes called the *Brissotins*.

The *left* or *anti-ministerial* party consisted of men less respectable, and less noted in the literary world, but *more daring* and *more persistent*.

They were called the *mountain men* (*Montagnards*), because they sat in the House on the upper or most elevated seats. Their leaders were Danton and Robespierre; subordinate to whom were Couthon, Thuriot, St. André, Camille-Desmoulins, Legendre, Marat, Carnot, and some others.

Between these two, sat the "*middle-men*," on seats level with the floor, whence they were derisively called the *Flats*.

Battle of Jemmapes (6 Nov. 1792). Return we now to the war, from the recapture of Verdun [*Vair-duh'n*] and Longwy.

In October, general Dumouriez [*Du-moo-re-a*], returned to Paris, and was immediately sent to begin the winter campaign in Belgium, which at that time belonged to Austria.

On the 6th of November, he halted on the heights of Jemmapes; overthrew the Austrian general with great slaughter; and all Belgium fell into his hands.

The Convention imposed on Belgium a democratic form of government; and so great was the misrule, that Dumouriez repaired to Paris to expostulate; but, failing in his mission, returned to his army a marked man, destined to destruction as soon as an opportunity presented itself.

Trial of Louis XVI. (11 Dec., 1792, to 17 Jan., 1793). France was now in a situation not unusual with nations changing their constitution: Successful *abroad*, but at *home* distracted by political factions.

The mountain-men, trying to overturn the ministry, pressed upon them the question of the king. He had been confined in the Temple for nearly four months; what did they intend to do with him?

The Girondists shuffled off the difficulty for a time, by appointing a Committee to report upon his conduct. The Committee brought before the house a number of accusations, and the Convention, on the 7th Nov., resolved to bring him to trial.

On the 11th of December, the ill-fated monarch was brought to the bar of the Assembly, accused of treason against the sovereignty of the people, and conspiracy against the liberty of the state. The accusers themselves were the judges also.

Louis heard his accusations unmoved; replied with moderation and precision; and acquitted himself altogether with modesty and dignity.

The counsel chosen by him consisted of Tronchet, the venerable Malesherbes, and a young advocate recently come to Paris named Desèze. The choice was judicious, and the task performed with ability and courage.

On Christmas day, the ill-starred monarch made his will; and the day following was summoned to the Convention a second time.

Desèze [*De-saze*] read his defence. The king then added a few words touching his love for the people; after which, he was conducted back to prison, and never again appeared before the Assembly.

On the 17th of January, the president announced to the house that "Citizen Louis Capet [*Cap-pay*], sometime called Louis XVI., had been found guilty by a majority of 26 votes, and that his execution was fixed for the 21st instant."

¶ One end of the Hall, during the trial, had been converted into a ladies' gallery, and was filled with women fashionably dressed, eating ices and oranges, laughing and chatting, and toying, jesting, or coquetting with the members, who divided their attention between the business of the court and acts of gallantry.

When the votes were given, the members walked up to the president's chair one by one. All those who voted for *death* were saluted from the gallery with acclamations, nods, and waving of handkerchiefs; but those who voted otherwise were assailed with groans and hisses. Altogether, the scene was more like a political election than a trial of life and death.

Thomas Paine, the Englishman, voted in the minority; but the duc d'Orléans, called *Philippe Egalité*, voted with the majority.

Execution of Louis XVI. (21 Jan., 1793). On Sunday the 20th, the king was informed of the sentence passed by the Convention, and asked for three days of grace to prepare himself for death, a request which was peremptorily refused.

In the evening before his execution, he was allowed to see his family and take leave of them. He then spent some hours in devotion, went to bed, and slept soundly.

At eight o'clock the next morning, he entered the carriage sent to convey him to the guillotine. A double line of soldiers hedged the whole route; above 40,000 were under arms. The cortège was nearly two hours in reaching the place of execution, and the king spent the time in reading "prayers for persons in extremity."

At ten he descended from the coach, followed by Mon. Edgeworth his confessor. He resisted the indignity of having his hands pinioned and hair cut off, but yielded at the remonstrance of his confessor. He then ascended the platform with a firm step, and advancing forward, said with a loud voice, "Frenchmen, I die innocent. I pardon my enemies, and heartily wish that France ——"

Here Santerre interfered, crying out, "Executioners, do your duty!" and the king's voice was drowned by the noise of rolling drums. The three executioners at the same moment, brought the king to the middle of the platform; arranged him face downwards; and the plank was pushed forward to the proper place. "Son of St. Louis," (cried Mon. Edgeworth) "ascend to heaven!" The spring was touched; the heavy knife descended in its grooves with a heavy thud; and the royal head was severed in an instant from the trunk.

Sanson, the chief executioner, holding the bleeding head by the hair, walked thrice round the scaffold showing it to the people: "Behold the head of a traitor to the nation!" said he. *Long live the republic!* shouted the crowd. And the troops waving their caps on their pikes or bayonets, exclaimed: *The nation for ever! Liberty! Liberty! Huzza!*

Many, who stood near enough, dipped their handkerchiefs in the blood of the murdered monarch, and paraded these gory trophies upon pikes before the windows of the Temple Tower, where the queen and royal children were confined.

As for the headless trunk, it was carried, weltering in the sawdust of the long red basket, to the cemetery of La Madeleine; tossed into a deep hole; and covered with a bushel of quicklime.

Thus perished Louis XVI., one of the most amiable of all the kings of France, in the 39th year of his life, and the 17th of his reign. He was not a bold man, but he shewed a noble and magnanimous spirit in his fall.

In 1815 his remains were disinterred and laid in the chancel of St. Denis [*San Dnef*].

His great defect was the want of decision. To save himself trouble, he yielded. He could not resist importunity, and hence any one who persevered was sure to carry his point. Many principles were given up by him, not because he was willing to abandon them, but because he had not sufficient energy to maintain them.

Through mistaken humanity he lost every thing. He allowed his soldiers to be defeated, lest, by resisting, they should destroy others. He suffered the Bastille to be destroyed, because he would not permit his cannons to be pointed against his subjects. He complied with the demands of the Assembly, in order to save bloodshed and disturbance. He lost his crown, his queen, his life, because he could not withstand importunity, even in defence of his just rights. He sanctioned that great lie sent to all the foreign courts, that he "willingly accepted the new constitution," because it was more easy to sign the falsehood, than to combat the framers of it.

He was quite willing and even desirous of introducing useful reforms, but had not strength of mind sufficient to control the turbulent passions of the time. He was a kind man, but far from a great one;

exemplary in his religious duties ; a king that would have been adored in peaceful times ; but wholly unfit to ride upon the whirlwind and direct the storm.

His ancestors bequeathed him the revolution, and he should have lived either before or after it. He had two qualities at least well suited to the throne, the fear of God and the love of his people. On the whole, we may say of him, as Shakespeare says of Lear, "he was a man more sinned against than sinning."

Aspect of Affairs (1793). By the death of Louis XVI., France had placed herself in hostility with all Europe. To Prussia, Austria, and Piedmont, already in arms, were now added England, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Naples, the Holy See, and after a time Russia.

The aspect of affairs was truly frightful. The country was literally blockaded on every side : England was on the coasts ; Spain on the Pyrenees ; Piedmont and Austria on the Alps ; Holland and Prussia on the northern frontier. Altogether there were 250,000 men in arms against her ; and her generals were repulsed in every direction.

In Paris, every success caused a riot of joy, and every defeat an insurrection. What was to be done ? Danton was the only man bold enough to cope with the complicated difficulties. "The soldiers," said he in the Convention, "desert us by thousands. Our only hope is in Paris. Paris must save France. She must supply us this very day with 30,000 men to send to Dumouriez [*Du-moo-re-a*]. By them, Holland must be conquered, and France preserved."

This bold project was received with applause. The black flag of distress was hoisted on the Guild-hall (*Hôtel de Ville*). And before midnight, 35,000 names were enrolled as volunteers.

N.B. A levy of 300,000 men was made, at the same time, for the protection of France.

¶ Internally, the state of the country was no less foreboding. No one, after sunset, was allowed to venture into the streets without "a pass." The city was deserted. Long patrols of the National Guard, troops of citizens armed at hazard, and policemen (*gendarmes*) prying into every doorway and alley, were the only persons who ventured abroad.

The people were split into two parties most bitter against each other, those who approved of the king's death, and those who disapproved of it. The former were the stronger party, and Marat, in his infamous journal, goaded their worst passions, urging them on to every sort of excess.

Insurrection of La Vendee (March, 1793.) In the midst of all these troubles, the Vendéans rose in insurrection. The inhabitants of La Vendée and its neighbouring districts formed a large portion

of the ancient province of Poitou, with some of the adjacent parts of Anjou and Brittany.

They were a very primitive people, who had not changed their simple habits with the times. The country being covered with woods, hills, and morasses, unintersected by roads, and wholly uncommercial, was isolated from the rest of France. The lords of the soil still enjoyed feudal service; the population still revered the priesthood, and felt a strong attachment to ancient customs.

In the year preceding, they had made some slight efforts to resist the innovations introduced by the Republican Assembly; but in the spring of '93, almost all the population rose *en masse*, aided by the local clergy and aristocracy.

The country being very intricate, afforded great advantages to an armed and active peasantry, who, for a time, beat every army sent against them; but they were made, at length, to succumb to the disciplined troops of the Convention.

The war of La Vendée is the most romantic event of modern French History. It seems like a page from the annals of chivalry; and the horrors which close it seem more like the acts of savages than of civilized Europeans.

All who took part in the rising were outlawed, and their property confiscated. And M. Prudhomme informs us, that as many as 937,000 persons of both sexes perished in La Vendée alone at this unhappy period.

In the meantime, the *Revolutionary Tribunal* was appointed to try, in a summary way, persons *suspected* of disaffection to the state; and in the month of April, *The Committee of Public Safety*, was endowed with dictatorial power.

The Committee (*de Salut Public*), created 6 April, 1793, had under its control the "Revolutionary Tribunal." Besides these two boards, *Revolutionary Committees* and Committees of *General Security* were appointed in every commune of France, the former to receive denunciations, and the latter to look after the police.

The *Comité de Salut Public* was at first composed of nine members, the chief of whom were Danton, Barrère, and Cambon. In June, three more were added, St. Just, St. André, and the paralytic Couthon. After the proscription of the Girondists, Robespierre and Carnot were appointed on the Committee. These sanguinary despots filled France with scaffolds; and, not content with preying on their enemies, fell upon each other, like scorpions, till all were swept away.

N. B. On the 8th of April, the duke of Orleans, called *Philippe Egalité*, was committed to prison, being suspected by the Convention of aiming at royalty.

Defection of Dumouriez (April, 1793). When Dumouriez [*Du-moo-re-a*] returned to his army, he found himself hampered and crippled in every way, especially in the commissariat department; in consequence of which, when the Austrians attacked him at **Neerwinden** he was obliged to retreat, and evacuate Belgium.

An open rupture could no longer be avoided. The government threw the blame upon the general, and the general threw it back on the government. Matters soon came to such a pass, that Dumouriez made overtures to the Austrians to overthrow the Convention.

Commissioners were sent to arrest him, but he handed them over as hostages. He next attempted to persuade his army to march with him upon Paris; but failing in this, he fled to the enemies' ranks, and spent the rest of his life in exile. He died, at the age of 84, at Turville Park, near Henley-upon-Thames, in 1823.

Fall of the Girondists (2 June, 1793). The September massacre was most revolting to Madame Roland and the whole Girondist party. Danton and Marat were especially obnoxious to them, and were considered a disgrace to the "pure principles of the revolution."

On the 2nd of June, Robespierre and Marat accused the Girondists of complicity in the crime of Dumouriez [*Du-moo-re-a*], one of their own partisans. The accusation fell through. The Girondists, in turn, cited Marat before the *Revolutionary Tribunal*, as the enemy of the Assembly; but the charge was dismissed as frivolous and vexatious. The rupture between the Jacobins and Girondists was now a struggle for life.

There was, amongst the revolutionists, a low riff-raff party, extremely violent and gross, called the *Sans-culottes* from their shabby appearance. Their favourite leader was Henriot, a base-born adventurer, who, by his audacity, contrived to win the favour of Robespierre, and was subsequently raised by him to the command of the National Guard.

After the arrest of Marat, Henriot with his *sans-culottes* formed into a Parisian Guard, and occupied, during the sessions of the Assembly, all the avenues of the Chamber. A host of fish-women, and others of the lowest class, nick-named *Robespierre's Weavers*, mingled with this guard, and never ceased yelling *Down with the Girondists!*

In order to rid the house of these pests, an Extraordinary *Commission of Twelve* was appointed to watch over the Commune; arrest those who interrupted the business of the Convention; and judge traitors.

The Commission of Twelve immediately arrested Hébert, vice-proctor of the Commune, a low fellow of ultra-revolutionary principles, and the publisher of an infamous journal called *Father Duchêne*. The Commune took the matter up as an affront; and under the guidance of Danton, organized a most formidable insurrection.

¶ On the 27th of May, an immense multitude marched tumultuously to the Tuileries, where the Assembly held their sittings, and

insolently demanded the immediate suppression of the Twelve. The Girondists remonstrated; the "Mountain" threatened; the mob became violent; midnight arrived; and the convention was obliged to give way.

Next day, the Commission was reappointed. The tumult began afresh, fiercer than before. Hébert was crowned as a hero. The alarm-gun was fired; the tocsin sounded; and an overwhelming mob pressed towards the Convention.

The Committee of Public Safety, who named the Commission of Twelve, demanded its suppression; and the Assembly, unable to resist any longer, pronounced the sentence of cassation.

Robespierre and Marat, emboldened by success, again sounded the tocsin on the 2nd of June. As many as 80,000 flew to arms; rushed towards the Tuileries; and clamorously demanded the arrest of the Girondist deputies.

The Assembly resisted; denounced the conduct of the Commune as factious; rose from their seats; and left the Chambers, headed by the president.

Scarcely had they crossed the gardens, when Henriot,* sword in hand, met them; and insisted on their immediate return, and compliance with the demand.

"Why not ask for the arrest of the whole Assembly?" cried the deputies. Henriot deigned to take no notice of this retort, but commanded the cannon to be pointed against the refractory body. It was a matter of life and surrender, or death and principle. They yielded; returned to the hall; gave up 80 of the obnoxious deputies; the mob was satisfied; quiet was restored; the Convention was no longer free; the *Reign of Terror* had commenced in earnest.

THE REIGN OF TERROR.

FROM 31ST MAY, 1793, TO 27TH JULY, 1794.

The domination of the Mountain-party, which commenced with the downfall of the Girondists, and terminated with the execution of Robespierre, is called in history the *Reign of Terror*.

Robespierre was the King of Terror, and the Committee of Public Safety his executive. A new constitution was established wholly democratic; and everything was subverted, to be recast in the mould of infidelity and popular misrule.

The constitution, decreed by the National Assembly, and accepted by Louis XVI. in the year 1791, was monarchical and representative; the present, called the "constitution of '93," recognized the sove-

* This villain proved a great coward. When Robespierre was threatened, he ran away to hide himself in the *Hotel-de-Ville*. Being discovered, he was thrown out of a window into the streets, and sent next day to the guillotine (1761—1794).

reignty of the people and the indivisibility of the Republic; but whatever its abstract merits, it was wholly suspended for a time; and a kind of dictatorship was vested in the Committee of Public Safety, till the present dangers and difficulties were overpast.

This Committee, which numbered Robespierre, Carnot, Danton, St. Just, Venzac, and Couthon the paralytic, among its most active members, ruled France for twelve months with a tyranny the most horrible and sanguinary it is possible to conceive.

Each of the twelve members took upon himself one particular department, and in that department was despotic. By this means, the entire executive power of the nation was in their hands; and they disposed of the lives and fortunes of men just as they thought fit.

Their rigour against emigrants was severe in the extreme. All absentees were outlawed; all who were caught preparing to emigrate, all who aided them, and all who gave them shelter, were unhesitatingly condemned to death. But their special attention was directed against persons "suspected" of disaffection to the government.

Assassination of Marat (13th July, 1793). Marat was a native of Switzerland, who settled in Paris first as a horse-doctor; after which he practised as a surgeon, and obtained some little notoriety for scientific researches.

When the revolution broke out, he abandoned his profession, and became the editor of a journal called *The People's Friend*, in which the king, the nobles, the clergy, and the old government met with unmeasured abuse.

In the new constitution he was one of the Paris Municipality, and president of the terrible Committee of the Commune. He was afterwards the Paris deputy in the National Convention.

A young Norman girl, 25 years of age, of poor but noble parentage, Charlotte de Corday by name, looking upon Marat as the head and chief of the Red Republicans, resolved to get rid of him. She was a religious enthusiast; and "Judith" was her model, whom "the Lord gifted with a special beauty for the deliverance of Israel."

Charlotte, living with her aunt at Caën [*Car'n*], conceived a romantic attachment to Madame Roland and the Girondists; and when several of them, who escaped the proscription of May, sought refuge in Caën, she called upon them to converse with them on her favourite theme.

On the 9th of July, she left her aunt's house, and, on arriving at Paris, took an apartment close by the house where Marat was dwelling. Marat was ill at the time, and confined to the house. Charlotte requested by letter an interview, and called at half-past seven o'clock on the evening of the 13th. Marat was in a bath, but allowed the beautiful young girl to enter the room.

A coarse covering was thrown across the bath, and the two entered into conversation. The subject was the Girondists, who had taken refuge in Caën [*Car'n*]. "Before the week is out," said Marat, "not one of them shall have escaped the guillotine." Scarcely had he uttered these words, when the young girl drew a knife from her kerchief, and plunged it to the hilt in the monster's heart. He gave one loud expiring cry, and sank back dead in the bath.

Some of the household entered; one felled the murderess to the ground with a chair, another trampled her under foot. A crowd gathered round the house; a commissary of police entered, and took the assassin to the Abbaye, the nearest prison. Two days afterwards, she was sent to the guillotine, and died saying, "One man have I slain to save a hundred thousand." Her beauty was extraordinary, and gave a lively interest to her sanguinary but heroic conduct.

Marat was almost deified for this assassination.* He was looked on as the Republican martyr. A splendid funeral was accorded him, in which every section joined; and a crowd of people, almost without number, followed in the train.

Four women bore the bath in which he had been murdered. Another carried on a pike his blood-stained shirt. Then followed eight bearers with the wooden bedstead on which he had been wont to sleep; and the corpse was laid on the bed, with its head exposed to view.

Salvos of artillery were fired every few minutes. The cortège traversed all the principal streets, and rested at last at the Panthéon, where the remains were interred among the "heroes of the nation;" but ere long the whole feeling of the people was completely changed, and the mouldering idol was disinterred, and indignantly removed from this national mausoleum.

¶ In appearance, Marat was ill-shaped, low of stature, and so ugly that he was the "scarecrow of children." Though menacing all, and slaying without mercy, he was a desperate coward, and lived in daily dread of being assassinated. Even Danton and Robespierre were ashamed of being seen with him.

Like Masaniello, and others suddenly exalted to uncontrolled power, this hideous demagogue was intoxicated by success, and thought to gain notoriety by out-Heroding Herod. Of the three names of worst pre-eminence in the Reign of Terror, though Robespierre is generally the most execrated, Carrier and Marat were by far the most detestable.

Charlotte of Corday was doubtless influenced by patriotic feeling as well as private resentment in her attack upon Marat. The attempt of Staps on the life of Napoleon I. was actuated by a similar mistaken sense of public duty; as was that of Louvet, the assassin of the duc de Berri, in the reign of Louis XVIII.; of Alibaud on Louis-Philippe; of Orsini on Napoléon III.; and of many others.

* The anniversary of the death of Marat was a national fête day to the end of the Revolution. In such processions, twelve young ladies were appointed to carry urns, supposed to contain the tears of France. It was death to refuse this office.

Charlotte Corday was rather tall, but admirably proportioned, with a figure full of grace and dignity. Her hands, arms, and shoulders, were models of beauty. An expression of gentleness and serenity characterised her fair oval countenance and regular features. Her open forehead, dark well-arched eyebrows, and eyes of a deep grey colour, added to her grave and meditative appearance. Her nose was straight and well formed; her mouth serious, but very beautiful. Like most of the Norman women, her complexion was transparent; and thick brown hair fell in curls round her neck and shoulders. Some few years after her death, an old man was asked if she really were so very beautiful. "Aye," replied the old man, "there are none such now."

Levy en Masse (17th September, 1793). The dangers of the Convention increased daily. The principal cities of France and more than 60 departments were in arms, and nearly all Europe was ready to second their efforts to crush the present government.

In this emergency, the municipal deputies proposed to the Assembly that all persons "suspected" of disaffection should be arrested. The suggestion was adopted and acted on.

At the same time, the whole of France was made into a vast camp. All young men, between the ages of 15 and 25, were put under arms; and by this levy, an army of twelve hundred thousand soldiers was raised. All churches and other national buildings were converted into barracks and public workshops; and all men, women, and even children, were required to aid in the national defence. Men of middle life, beyond the stated age, were required to forge arms and provide military stores; women to make clothes, and wait on the sick and wounded; children, to convert old linen into lint; and the old, to exhort their juniors to activity and deeds of daring.

By these energetic measures the Convention triumphed over all its enemies. Toulon, Bordeaux, and Lyons, successively submitted. The Republic was no less victorious on the frontiers. The siege of Dunkirk was raised, and soon afterwards that of Maubeuge, which enabled France to act on the offensive.

The Piedmontese were driven to the other side of the Alps; and the Republic, single-handed, recovered from the combined armies of Europe, all that she had lost.

This was really an honour to the military spirit of the nation; but alas! each victory was followed by the most horrible massacres, ordained by the Committee of Public Safety.

Thus, after the subjugation of Lyons, the city was given up to pillage, and the very name of the city was expunged from the map of France. The scaffold was too slow a process of execution, and the infamous Committee ordered the insurgents to be posted in the plain beyond the walls in rows of 200 at a time, and then to be shot down by cannon. By this means, between 2000 and 3000 persons were butchered in cold blood.

Toulon, Caën, Marseilles, and Bordeaux, became in turns the theatres of similar atrocities; while, at Paris, all who were even suspected of

holding opinions at variance with the Mountain junto were ruthlessly sent to execution.

The number of victims which fell during the 420 days of the Reign of Terror is estimated at about 4000, of which 900 at least were women or children.

The executions of Lyons were under the direction of Collot d'Herbois, Fouché, and Couthon. At Toulon a similar butchery was made by Barras and Fréron.

Execution of Marie-Antoinette. On the 16th of October (1793), the queen, who had been severed from her sister and children, and removed from the Temple to the *Conciergerie*, was brought before the Revolutionary Tribunal, and condemned to death.

She showed on her trial a dignified behaviour, and heard her sentence with heroic resignation. When asked if she had anything to say, she answered: "I was a queen, and you took away my crown; a wife, and you killed my husband; a mother, and you robbed me of my children. My blood alone remains to me. Take it, but do not make me suffer long."

She was executed in the presence of an immense crowd of spectators, who, with brutal hardness of heart, exhibited every demonstration of joy, when she appeared on the fatal scaffold.

Of all the acts of the Revolution, none has cast on it so much dishonour as this. From the moment of the king's death, Marie-Antoinette was nothing; and her immolation was both impolitic and base. It was not principle, but revenge; not love of liberty, but hatred to a defenceless woman. Nothing, however, could have better served the character of the beautiful "Austrian." Her treatment was so scandalous, her patience and fortitude so heroic, her death so truly melancholy, that all her faults are forgotten, and the most censorious merely sigh, while they think of her levity and folly.

Marie-Antoinette, like her husband, was 38 years old when she died. Her hair was perfectly grey, her eyes sunk in the sockets, and her whole appearance was that of a woman full ten years older.

Madame Elizabeth was put to death 10th May, 1794.

Sundry Executions. Next came **Brissot** and 20 more of the Girondists, proscribed on the 2nd of June; men illustrious for their talent, who loved the republic, but were friends to order, justice, and liberty. They marched to the place of execution with unflinching courage, singing the Marseillaise (21st October).

¶ **Philippe-Egalite**, duke of Orleans, followed next. He was dragged from Marseilles to Paris, and accused of aspiring at the sovereignty. His execution gave satisfaction to all parties. Though a royal duke, he had sided with the *Jacobins*; though a relative of the king, he had voted for his death; and though professing republican principles, he aimed at the crown. He was guillotined on the 6th of November, 1793.

His son, the duc de Chartres, was duc d'Orléans after the death of his father, and, in 1830, was crowned king of the French, under the name of Louis-Philippe.

¶ Two days afterwards, **Madame Roland**, wife of the Home Secretary, was beheaded. Her husband was editor of the *Lyons Courier*, an organ of the Girondists, especially obnoxious to the Mountain-party.

¶ Next followed the venerable **Bailly**, author of three "histories" of considerable value, on ancient, modern, and oriental astronomy. At the commencement of the Revolution, he represented Paris in the States-General; and when the *Tiers-état* swore not to separate till they had given France a constitution, was elected President of the Assembly.

On the day of the Bastille, he was appointed Mayor of Paris; but lost all his popularity, when he ordered the military to fire on the rioters in the Champ-de-Mars [*Sharnd-Mars*], on the 17th July, 1791. He quitted the capital, and lived in retirement; but was ferretted out by his enemies, condemned to death by the Revolutionary Tribunal, and guillotined in the Champ-de-Mars on the 11th of November, 1793.

It was a bitterly cold morning, and the executioners delayed the fatal catastrophe with studied cruelty. "You tremble, citizen," said one of them. "True," replied Bailly; "the cold is indeed piercing."

Bailly and Dr. Franklin were deputed by government to examine into the merits of animal magnetism by Mesmer, and pronounced it in their opinion to be quackery.

¶ The eloquent **Barnave**, and **Manuel** procureur-général of the Commune-de-Paris, fell next. With them, by the same knife, the generals Houchard, Custine, Biron, Beauharnais,* and a crowd of others, whose only crime was their reputation, their name, or their great wealth.

Barnave (1761—1793), one of the deputies of the *Tiers-état*, was a rival of Mirabeau in eloquence, and one of the leaders of the National Assembly. He was charged with the conveyance of the king from Varennes to Paris; opposed the conduct of the house towards the royal family; caused a split in the Jacobin faction, carrying off the more moderate to form the *Feuillant Club*. He soon lost his popularity, and retired from public life. In his retirement he corresponded with the court; and it was for this offence that he was brought to the scaffold, having been already imprisoned for 15 months.

Split in the Montagne (1794). The winter passed away pretty quietly. The "Mountain" daily increased in influence. The executive was the Committee of Public Safety, and Robespierre its head and front. Thirty other committees were appointed to carry on the business of the state, and the Convention was reduced to a mere Court of Records.

It is not to be supposed that Robespierre attained to his high eminence without opposition. Hébert and Danton disputed the palm with him, but both were swept away without compunction.

* Joséphine, the widow of general Beauharnais, married Napoléon Bonaparte; and Hortense-Beauharnais (the general's daughter) was the mother of the late emperor.

Hébert (1755—1794), the coarsest and most vulgar-minded of the three, was nicknamed *Father Duchêne*, from a low Jacobin paper of that title edited by him, in which he assailed the queen with the grossest calumnies. It was this vaunting atheist who kept the city in one perpetual whirl, with his “feasts of reason,” riotous processions, blasphemous speeches, and democratic changes. His followers were called *Hébertists*.

Both Danton and Robespierre united to rid themselves of this villain, and indicted his whole faction before the Convention as the “enemies of virtue, the promoters of atheism, and the instruments of discord.” Accordingly, the next day, Hébert and his 20 followers were led to the guillotine, where they died like cowards amid the jeers and hisses of the crowd.

Danton (1759—1794) had all the qualities of body and mind for a demagogue leader: A strong muscular frame, a gigantic stature, a good understanding, an ardent imagination, a Stentorian voice, a sledge-hammer eloquence, and a reckless disposition, daunted by no difficulties, and held in check by no consequences. It was he alone who preserved his equanimity when the Prussians invaded France. He was the founder of the *Cordeliers*. He had been Minister of Justice in the Legislative Assembly; and in the Convention was one of the Committee of Public Safety. His followers were called *Dantonists*; and at one time he was far more powerful than Robespierre, his rival.

Hébert being dead, Danton and Robespierre struggled for the supremacy; but Danton was too confident and too honest to cope with the wily Jacobin. Only ten days after the execution of Hébert, Robespierre impudently charged Danton before the Convention of attempting to restore the monarchy.

When the giant was informed of this charge, and that the Assembly had signed a warrant for his arrest, he exclaimed in thunder, “He durst not! he durst not! I defy him to touch a hair of my head!” but he was mistaken. He was seized, with his friend Camille-Desmoulins and eight others; dragged before the Revolutionary Tribunal, and not so much as allowed to speak.

“We are sacrificed to the ambition of a vile coward,” said Danton, as he was led off to execution; “but let him beware! As Hébert dragged on Danton, so Danton shall drag on Robespierre.”

Robespierre was a suave, smooth-faced, oily-tongued villain, who made a “cat’s-paw” of any one who served his purpose. He began the world as an advocate, but was no orator, and obtained no sort of eminence. He was a thorough coward, and owed his extraordinary success to cunning and perseverance. He was always prating about the “beauty of morality,” and styled himself “the people’s friend.”

Placing him beside his two rivals, we may compare Hébert to a gorilla, Danton to a wild buffalo, and Robespierre to a sleek-coated leopard. The first ruled by pandering to the vulgar passions; the second, by bullying; the third, by guile. Hébert was an ordinary man, with no distinctive mark. Danton was rigidly furrowed with broad hard lines. He was broad-shouldered, large-chested, and brawny-limbed. His head was square; his features flattened almost to the negro type; his voice gruff, deep, and powerful; his daring almost fool-hardy. Robespierre, on the other hand, was a slim, wiry man, with a high receding forehead, sharp angular face, thin lips, and a keen hawk-like glance.

Sundry Executions (1794). After the death of Danton, the terror of both the governors and the governed knew no bounds; and death was the only means of keeping the Republic in existence. Victims were executed by the dozen and score at a time, and no one was secure for a single hour.

It was then that Madame **Elizabeth**, venerated for her virtue, and idolized for her amiability, was led to the scaffold. It was then that 20 young ladies of Verdun were executed, for dancing at a ball given by the Prussian officers. It was then that the venerable **Malesherbes**, with all his family, and 22 members of the *parlement*, were beheaded. It was then that the celebrated **Lavoisier** [*Lah-vvoi-zě-a*], **Andre Chenier** [*Sha-ně-a*] the poet, Roucher, and many others, fell victims.

Under the pretence of conspiracies which never existed, the guillotine was daily inundated with blood. Every night a list of the proscribed was drawn up, called by the jailors their *Evening Journal*.

Carrier at Nantes (1794). In several towns of France, the slaughter was not less terrible than in the capital. Thus at Nantes [*Narnt*], where Carrier was sent by the Convention in the capacity of proconsul, no fewer than 32,000 persons (of which 500 were the orphan children of murdered parents) were massacred in a few weeks.

When he arrived there, he found the prisons crowded with persons "suspected" of disaffection, and hit upon several methods of wholesale slaughter, which would have been thought incredible in romance.

For example: He confined some 150 persons of various ranks in the hold of a vessel, under pretence of deportation; and drowned them all in the Loire, by scuttling the ship. This process he repeated 25 times. It was facetiously called *Carrier's vertical deportation*, and the vessels employed for the purpose were called *Noyades*.

Another device by the same monster was his *Republican Marriages*, which consisted of tying men and women together by their hands and feet, and casting them into the river. The waters of the Loire were

so corrupted by dead bodies, that its use for drinking or cooking was prohibited by law.

A third of his processes was called his *Battues*. Some 500 persons were placed on a bridge near Nantes [*Narnt*], and shot down by cannons, as game is slaughtered in gentlemen's parks in the shooting season.

Even Robespierre was ashamed of these enormities, and recalled his proconsul; but Carrier stoutly maintained that all he had done had been by the express order of the "Incorruptible" (*Robespierre*).

At the fall of Robespierre, Carrier was brought before the Revolutionary Tribunal, and sent to the guillotine (1756—1794.)

¶ Joseph **Lebon**, another member of the Convention, was sent to the Pas-de-Calais as Commissaire, and established at Arras (where he had once been *Curé*) the régime of Terror.

He instituted a tribunal, which in a few months, condemned to death several thousands of both sexes. With a red cap on his head, he used to promenade the streets, sword in hand and two pistols in his belt, a guillotine being carried before him as his insignia of office. This madman was himself guillotined in 1795.

Maugret signalized himself at Orange by similar atrocities.

Fall of Robespierre (9th Thermidor, Year II., 27th July, 1794). By means of the guillotine, Robespierre had now removed every avowed and suspected rival. All the authorities of the state were of his nomination; all the committees at his disposal; and all orders of society bowed down before him.

Amidst this apparent unanimity, however, was a secret undercurrent of hatred and opposition. The Girondists never forgave him the death of Danton; the "Mountain," by whose means he had climbed to greatness, were jealous of him; and even his own Jacobins, whose leader he had been from the beginning, envied him his monopoly of power.

He had long been lowering the position of the Convention, and had succeeded in reducing that once turbulent assembly into a nonentity; but finding indications of a reviving spirit he obtained a decree which authorized the Committee of Public Safety to arrest any deputy "suspected" of disaffection.

This was his death warrant. On the 25th of July, it oozed out that he had secret designs against a large body of the Convention. This of course induced the members to league together for their common safety; Robespierre, notwithstanding, denounced them by name, and demanded their arrest.

On the 27th, called the 9th of the month Thermidor, St. Just, a member of the executive, in attempting to defend him, was repeatedly interrupted; and Billaud-Varennès had the boldness to denounce him

as a tyrant. Up started Robespierre to defend his conduct, but his words were drowned amidst a cry of *Down! down! down with the tyrant!* from all sides of the house.

Tallien rose to second the motion of his friend; and, carried away with the excitement of the moment, flourished his poignard in the face of Robespierre, calling him a *new Cromwell*, and threatening to stab him to the heart.

"Assassin!" shrieked the tyrant, "hear me, for I will speak." The confusion increased; the uproar became frightful; and Robespierre, raving like a madman, and flying from bench to bench, sank on the floor from mere physical exhaustion.

His arrest, with that of a younger brother, and his two chief confederates Couthon and St. Just, was now tumultuously passed; but all four made their escape and found an asylum in the Commune.

In the evening, the whole city was in commotion; the tocsin was sounded; and Henriot, commandant of the forces, besieged the Convention Hall with cannon. The Assembly pronounced him an outlaw; his soldiers refused to fire; and his cause was utterly hopeless.

At three o'clock in the morning of the day following (the 28th), the Hôtel-de-Ville (where the Commune was assembled, with Robespierre in their midst) was surrounded by order of the Convention. The members were utterly panic-struck. Robespierre, in attempting to shoot himself, fractured his jaw; his brother, trying to escape, jumped from a third storey, but was not killed; Couthon stabbed himself, but not mortally; and even Henriot, who was tossed out of a window into a common sewer, was picked up alive.

All were seized; and, as they had been outlawed, were hurried off to the place of execution, where, with 60 municipal officers, they suffered death—a ghastly mutilated crew, trembling with fear, and writhing with agony.*

The enthusiasm of the people was unbounded. They lived, they breathed again. They danced, they laughed for joy, even at the foot of the guillotine. The despots were dead. France was relieved of her incubus. Hope leaped once more into the hearts of the oppressed. The Reign of Terror was ended, after having endured for 420 days.

All the executions performed during this dreadful period were by two brothers named Sanson, who officiated at the death of Louis XVI., Marie-Antoinette, the princess Elizabeth, Hébert, Danton, and Robespierre, with equal unconcern.

* When Robespierre arrived at the scaffold, he was more dead than alive; but when Sanson roughly pulled off the bandage of his fractured jaw, he uttered a most horrible shriek. Of all the executions of the revolution, none was so revolting and appalling as this.

REACTION ON REACTION.

FROM 13TH THERMIDOR (1ST JULY), 1794, TO 4TH BRUMAIRE (26TH OCTOBER), 1795.

Robespierre being dead, the power of the Convention revived, and that of the Committees was greatly abridged. Several laws weighing on persons "suspected" were repealed; the Jacobin club was closed; the name of Lyons restored; and several of the most infamous agents of Robespierre were put to death, amongst whom were the public accuser, Joseph Lebon, and the villain Carrier.

Seventy-three of the proscribed deputies were recalled; and the Convention at once rescinded the decrees by which the priests and nobles were banished. The ancient religion was re-established. The assize which fixed the price of food was abolished; and the bust of Marat, set up in the hall of the Assembly, was broken to pieces.

¶ These active and energetic measures produced no immediate advantage, but, like all sudden changes, great temporary distress. The Assignats [*as-sinn'-yah*] or paper-money greatly fell in value, and ruined thousands. The assize being taken off food, whereby the maximum price was fixed, gave rise to enormous speculations in corn. The grain was bought up by great monopolists, and the price of bread ran up to famine prices. Add to this, the harvest was a bad one; and, altogether, the distress was very great. The poor attributed their distress to the new government, and bread riots became common.

One of the most formidable of these riots broke out on the 12th of the month Germinal (1st April), when an immense crowd of malcontents marched to the Tuileries, and broke into the Convention Hall, demanding the restoration of the constitution of '93. The deputies ordered the soldiers to clear the hall, and the mob was dispersed.

On the 1st of the month Prairial (20th May), a revolt on a still more formidable scale was organized. The mob again broke into the Convention Hall, crying out, "*Bread! bread!*" and again demanding the constitution of '93.

A ruffian took aim at the president. One of the deputies sprang forward and was wounded. The wounded body was then dragged out of the hall and decapitated.

At length, the soldiers arrived; the mob retreated; the Convention arrested 14 of the ringleaders; broke up the Revolutionary Committees; and formally declared the constitution of '93 abolished.

Thus ended the first democratic government of France, which endured a little more than three years, but even in that short time was altered over and over again to suit the whims of the ruling faction. With the fall of the Montagnards, the Girondists rose again into the ascendant.*

* The liberals, who rose into power upon the fall of Robespierre, are sometimes called *Thermidorians*, from "*Thermidor*," the month in which Robespierre was beheaded.

Fouquier-Tainville, the public accuser and director, of Robespierre's Revolutionary Tribunal, was one of the most execrable of all the monsters of this monstrous period. He boasted of pronouncing only one word—*death*. It was he who accused Marie-Antoinette of incest with the dauphin, to which the queen replied, "I appeal to all mothers whether the charge is possible." He called the guillotine the *coining machine of the Revolution*; and seems to have been really insane with blood-thirstiness.

N.B.—Ten of the most active villains of the Revolution died unnatural deaths under the age of 40 years, g. e. :—

<i>St. Just and Lebon were guillotined at the age of</i>	26	<i>Camille-Desmoulins was guillotined at...</i>	32
<i>Irbas committed suicide at the age of</i> ...	28	<i>Danton and Robespierre</i>	35
<i>Henriot was guillotined</i>	31	<i>Carrier and Couthon</i>	38
		<i>Hébert</i>	39

Fouquier-Tainville was 48 when he was executed, and Marat 49 when he was assassinated.

EFFECTS ON SOCIETY.

When the first feeling of astonishment had subsided, French gaiety returned. Men of the lowest class, enriched by the revolution, rose into importance; royalists started up as if from the grave. A citizen, who rejoiced in a valuable servant, found suddenly he had been paying wages to some marchioness in disguise; and ladies, who had turned shepherdesses for the nonce, resumed their proper rank.

The hôtels of the Faubourg St. Germain filled again; grand balls were given; the theatres were crowded to overflowing; the gaming-tables were crowded. Divorce was common and easy. Women changed their names as they listed, and thronged the public promenades attired in voluptuous Grecian costume, with a red shawl, fashionable ever since Charlotte Corday appeared in Paris in a red garment, and their hair cropped short, *à la sacrifice*.

A familiarity of manner marked the reaction. The language altered. The vulgarity of the fishwomen was no longer imitated. Profligate books multiplied enormously. Corruption was as gross as ever. The revolution had done nothing to purify the manners of society.

The young men, called *Muscadins*, armed with huge sticks, went about breaking the busts of Marat wherever they found them; and lawlessness was the fashion of the day.

CONSTITUTION OF YEAR III.

As the constitution of '93 was impracticable, a committee was appointed in 1795 to frame a new one, and presented their scheme to the Convention on the 24th of June.

It proposed to vest the *legislative* power in two assemblies, the Council of Elders, consisting of 250 members, and the Council of Five-hundred. The *executive*, on the other hand, was to be entrusted to a board of five persons to be called the Directory.

The "Five-hundred" were to have the exclusive right of proposing laws; the "Elders" or "Ancients" of rejecting or ratifying them; and the "Directors" of seeing them carried out.

The Five-hundred were to nominate ten times as many persons as were required, and the Elders were to prick from this list the names they liked best.

Of the executive, one member was to retire annually, so that in five years every member of the Directory would be changed. Each of the five was in rotation to be president for three months; and the president was to keep the seals, and sign the government signatures.

13th Vendémiaire, Year IV. (*5th October, 1795*). Whatever the merits of the new constitution, it was too much like a limited monarchy to please the people; and on the 13th of the month Vendémiaire, 30,000 men flew to arms, and marched against the Convention.

Barras was charged with the defence of the Assembly, and associated with himself **Napoleon-Bonaparte**, a young general who first came into notice at the siege of Toulon.

So judicious were their arrangements, and so skilfully executed, that the insurgents were wholly discomfited, and tranquillity restored in a few hours. The whole merit of this achievement was attributed to Bonaparte, who from this moment became the “observed” of all France.

The new constitution being complete, the Convention terminated its existence, by resolving itself into an elective assembly; but appointed two-thirds of its members to posts in the new government.

The Convention had sat for three years. Its administration had been the most sanguinary and despotic that ever stained a civilized nation. The people had sought for liberty, but had merely changed the names of their oppressors. They had abolished ranks and titles, but found a president only another name for despot, and a member of a committee or of the Convention equally formidable as a noble in the old régime. The substance of the evil remained, but the tyrants, as Ophelia says, wore “their rue with a difference.”

MILITARY EXPEDITIONS (1794, 1795).

The reactions, which marked the period immediately subsequent to the fall of Robespierre, did not check the success of the French armies.

Pichegru, on the north, drove back the duke of York, and made himself master of all Holland.

In the south, the passage of the Apennines was forced by a skilful manœuvre, and all Italy was thrown open.

In the west, the hopes which Brittany and La-Vendée had founded upon England were disappointed. A fleet from England had disembarked on the peninsula of Quibelon, and was joined by a vast number of emigrants and 15,000 *chouans*; but a tempest drove it from the coast, and general Hoche coming up, fell upon the allies with such fury,

that they were obliged to capitulate. The Convention ignored the terms of the capitulation, and the captives were all shot.

Prussia, Spain, and Holland, weary of the contest, laid down their arms at length, and signed at Ratisbon a treaty of peace.

In the summer of '94 Corsica was taken by Great Britain; and the whole of the French *West India* islands, except Guadaloupe, yielded to the British troops under the command of Sir Charles Grey and Sir John Jarvis.

On the 1st of June, earl Howe gained a splendid victory over the French fleet near Ushant.

INSTITUTIONS UNDER THE CONVENTION.

Weights and Measures. While blood was flowing in every city of France; its mansions, convents, and churches recklessly destroyed; its land without cultivators, and its inhabitants dying of famine and the guillotine; the Convention busied itself with devising a new system of weights and measures, on the *decimal* scale.

In order to get a scientific *unit of length*, Mechain and Delambre were employed to measure circles of latitude in 12 different places. The mean was taken, and divided into a hundred parts called degrees, each of which was divided into 100 parts; one of which, called a *mètre*, was made the *unit of length*, and 1000 constituted a mile.

At the same time, Lavoisier, the great chemist, was employed to ascertain the exact weight of a cubic foot of water, in vacuo, at freezing point, in order to obtain a scientific *unit of liquid and dry measures*. This cubic foot, being reduced to the 10th part of a *mètre*, furnished the unit of dry measure, called a *litre*; and, being reduced to a 100th part, furnished a unit for liquid measures, called a *gramme*.

The *fractions* of every unite were expressed by *Latin* numerals, and the *multiples* by *Greek*. Thus deci-mètre, centi-mètre, deci-gramme, centi-gramme, and so on, express the 10th or 100th part of a *mètre* or *gramme*; while kilo-mètre and kilo-gramme, &c., mean 100 *mètres* or *grammes*.

Republican Calendar (22 Sept. 1793). Having reduced all weights and measures to the decimal notation, the Convention next set about "reforming" the Calendar, but the alterations introduced were not equally successful.

(1) They made the year begin with the autumnal equinox, which happened to be the anniversary of the Republic. Departing from their *decimal* crotchet, they divided the year into 12 months. The three Autumn months began on the 22nd September; the three Winter months on the shortest day; the three Spring months on the Vernal equinox; and the three Summer ones on the 19th of June.

Each month was made to contain 30 days; and as this did not exhaust the year, five complimentary days were added, and called by the absurd cant expression *Sans Culottides*, out of compliment or from some far-fetched resemblance to the riff-raff republicans, called *sans culottes*.

(2) It next became necessary to fix upon names for the 12 months. It would have been absurd to call the first month *September*, the second *October*, the third *November*, and so on. Consequently, an entire new set of names were devised, descriptive of the season indicated:

Thus the three Autumn months were called Vendémiaire, Brumaire, and Frimaire: Vintage-month, Fog-month, and Hoar-frost-month.

The three Winter-months, Nivôse, Pluviôse, and Ventôse: Snow-month, Rain-month, and Wind-month.

The three Spring months, Germinal, Floréal, and Prairial : Blossom-month, Flower-month, and Meadow-month.

And the three Summer months, Messidor, Thermidor, and Fructidor : Harvest-month, Hot-month, and Fruit-month.

(3) Having disposed of the months, it next became necessary to consider the weeks and days. For the first, they tried their pet decimal plan, making a week to consist of ten days, and calling it a *Decade*. The names of the days were Primidi, Duōdi, Tridi, Quartidi, Quintidi, Sextidi, Septidi, Octidi, Nonidi, and Decādi; which words are simply compounded of the Latin ordinals, with *di* (for *dies* a day) at the end.

All this is like childish folly; neither science nor common sense can justify it; and as soon as the French nation returned to its sober senses, it abolished this ridiculous table of time.

It is impossible to point out half the inconsistencies of the Republican Calendars, but the following are sufficiently palpable. The Convention did not divide the year into 10 but 12 months, the day into 24 instead of 20 hours, and the year into 365 instead of 360 days. With all their shifts they could not square their year to the revolutions of the Sun and Moon. They might ignore the name of God and pooh-pooh His revelation, but could not force the Sun and Moon to be obedient to their sapient laws.

The Republican Calendar has been wittily rendered into English thus :

Autumn months	Wheezy, Sneezzy, Freezy;
Winter ,,	Slippy, Drippy, Nippy;
Spring ,,	Showery, Flowery, Bowery;
Summer ,,	Wheaty, Heaty, Sweety.

Foundations. Several excellent Institutions were founded by the Convention : as,

(1) The *Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers* for the gratuitous education of mechanics, a noble repository of machines, models, drawings, and designs, connected with manufactures, agriculture, and other branches of industry, with 14 professorships paid by the state.

(2) The *Normal School* for the education of young men to be brought up as teachers.

(3) The *Schools of Medicine* at Paris, Strasbourg, and Montpellier.

(4) The *Polytechnic School* to form pupils for the artillery, engineering, and marine services; and to instruct them in mining, bridge-making, road-making, and so on. This is by far the best institution in France.

(5) The *Institute*, under which term they incorporated a number of literary and scientific societies established in the reigns of Louis XIII. and XIV. It contained three departments; the first for physical and mathematical sciences; the second for moral and political; and the third for literature and the fine arts.

Napoleon divided the last of these departments into two; and Louis XVIII. called the four departments four *academies*. Two others have since been added. Lord Brougham was a member of the Institute, but of a branch founded or rather restored by Louis-Philippe in 1832. (*L'Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques*).

Worship of Reason (1793). One of the great errors of the Convention was the love of systematizing. Thus, in politics, their axiom was the "sovereignty of the people;" in commerce, the decimal crotchet; in religion, the arbitrament of *reason* and the beauty of *virtue*.

Christianity had been losing its influence; and on the 7th of November, 1793, a great multitude of priests, headed by Gobet, bishop of Paris, went to the Hall of the Convention, and there solemnly resigned their functions, and renounced the Christian religion. This farce being played out, it was decreed by acclamation, that Liberty, Equality, and Reason, should be henceforth the only deities of France.

The Commune of Paris went further still, and ordered all the churches to be shut up. Prohibiting the use of the word "God," and the celebration of Christian rites, they compelled the bishop of Paris, with singular inconsistency, to offer sacrifice to the "goddess of Reason."

And who was this goddess of Reason, which "Nebuchadnezzar the king had set up?" A common ballet-dancer of licentious character, who, dressed in a thin white veil, and wearing on her head a cap of liberty, was borne by four men, in an arm chair decorated with oak garlands, to Nôtre-Dame, and placed upon the altar. An immense crowd of women all in white formed her cortège, and bishops and priests, magistrates and members of the Convention, women of high position, and officers of the army, countenanced this horrible mockery, and sang "hymns of liberty" to the harlot even in the house of God.

Fete of the Supreme Being (8 June, 1794). Robespierre felt convinced that the social system could not be upheld without some sort of religion; and therefore said he, "If no Deity exists, one must be invented for the nonce." Accordingly, he made the Convention give out that the Republic recognized the existence of a Supreme Being, and ordained every tenth day a festival to his honour.

The first of these festivals took place on the 20th of the month Prairial (8 June), in the gardens of the Tuileries. It was a kind of half allegorical and half pagan ceremony. Robespierre was chief pontiff, and marched about 20 paces in advance of the procession, bearing in his hands flowers and ears of corn.

When he reached the altar, he harangued the people. Effigies of Atheism, Fanaticism, and Discord were burnt; and it was hoped that better times were at hand; but the next day, the old scenes of blood were renewed with more frightful cruelty than ever.

On the 10th of November, 1793, it was enacted that the dead should in future be carried to the grave "covered with a veil bearing a representation of *Sleep*." The cemeteries were planted like gardens, and a statue of *Sleep* was erected under the shade of some large trees on the grounds. Over the gates of the cemeteries was inscribed, "Death an eternal sleep."

An attempt was made, at the same time, to revive the old Pagan games, processions, and idolatries. The pulpits were converted into rostra, from which demagogues thundered their extravagant speeches, and where saints and crucifixes once stood, were placed the busts of popular leaders and daring infidels.

THE ROYAL FAMILY IN PRISON.

The princess, who was 14 years of age, kept a diary of the prison life of the royal family of France. Pens, ink, and paper, were not allowed, but she wrote her journal with a pencil, on scraps of paper which she secreted.

She says, that when they were first placed in the tower of the Temple, they had a good collection of old books; and that these books, together with the instruction of the dauphin, tended greatly to relieve the weariness of the time; but afterwards the books were taken from them.

The king rose at seven, and was employed till eight in private devotions. He then dressed himself and the dauphin; and, at nine, went to breakfast. After breakfast, he taught the young prince till eleven. The child then played till twelve, when the whole family was obliged to walk in the garden, whatever the weather might be, that the guards might see them, and feel satisfied of their security.

The walk lasted till two, which was dinner-time; and after dinner, the king and queen played dominos or cards, or "pretended to play, that they might converse together more privately."

At six, the dauphin went again to the king to say his lessons, and then played till supper time. After supper, the queen undressed him and put him to bed. The king retired at eleven o'clock.

The princess says, that her mother worked a great deal of tapestry, and was fond of being read to. That her aunt was frequently at prayer, and read a good many religious books, sometimes aloud.

The king was allowed to have his valet, but the queen was deprived of all her servants, and was waited on by her daughter and sister-in-law. At first, they were permitted to have a woman to clean out the rooms, light the fires, make the beds, and wash up the crockery; but the woman lost her wits, and required more attention than she was worth, so they dispensed with her attendance, and did the work themselves.

"For a time," says the young writer, "we were very awkward, and felt the fatigue much; but we preferred anything to being pestered with another female Jacobin."

Scarcely an hour past without their being subjected to some vexation or insult. One or other of the party was for ever being searched, to see that no treasonable paper was secreted. Every source of amusement was taken from them, even the tapestry which the queen was working, lest some secret intelligence should be conveyed by the stitches.

While the queen gave her daughter lessons, a municipal officer looked all the time over her shoulders.

On the 3rd July, 1793, the young dauphin was taken away from his widowed mother. This was a heart-rending grief; and, from that moment, the poor queen used to sit nearly all the day on the leads, looking through a chink, to catch a glimpse of her boy as he passed by. About a month after this cruel separation, she was ordered to leave the Temple, and was conveyed to the Conciergerie, a place of confinement of the lowest description. A police officer was stationed in her cell both night and day, in so much that she was obliged even to dress and undress in his presence.

Her only employment in the Conciergerie was to unravel a piece of old carpet, and with two skewers, knit the ravellings into garters.

The two princesses remained together in the Temple till May, 1794, when the princess Elizabeth was executed. She was a noble woman, to whom all the royal Family looked for consolation in their deep afflictions.

After the death of her aunt, the young princess remained, for six months longer, the one solitary tenant of the gloomy tower. She was then sent to her friends at Vienna, but it was many a long day before that young face was seen to smile.

Louis XVII. On the death of the king, the young dauphin, then only eight years old, was recognized as Louis XVII. by the French emigrants and foreign courts; but he was never crowned, and never enjoyed even the pretence of royalty; so far from it, he was sent by the Convention to be brought up by a cobbler, named Simon, an officer of the Commune, but a low-minded villain, who treated him with disgusting cruelty.

He stripped him of his suit of mourning, and dressed him in a red cap and coarse jacket, such as the children of the poor were accustomed to wear. He forced him to drink intoxicating liquors, taught him blasphemous oaths and revolutionary songs, and beat him if he refused obedience.

In a few months, this delicate boy became a miserable object, half consumptive and half idiot.

On the 19th January, 1794, Simon left him locked up in a great room, almost unfurnished. His bed was not made for six months; he had no change of linen for more than a year; his hands and face were rarely if ever washed; he had no occupation by day, and no candle was allowed him at night.

This pitiable state continued till November, when two new jailors of more humane disposition arrived. He grew very fond of them, but their humanity

came too late to save his life. He lingered till the following June, and then died. (*Nominal King from 1793—1795.*)*

PRISON LIFE IN THE REVOLUTION.

Princes of the blood, generals, statesmen, orators, handsome and fashionable ladies, nuns, men of letters, priests, actors, and church dignitaries, met in the prisons of France, which resembled the gay and frivolous circles of the great, more than the abode of death.

The prisoners were permitted to mix freely, and regulate their own amusements. They generally elected presidents, who distributed the daily tasks, and saw that they were properly performed. Some lit the fires; others swept the rooms and made the beds; a few prepared their own food.

The wealthy had their meals brought in to them from their houses, or sent in by a *restaurateur*; and large sums were spent by the captives in procuring for themselves the delicacies of the season. The poor were pensioners of the rich; and as much pride was displayed in this singular luxury, as had been shown in the lacqueys, horses, and household, which they formerly kept.

The same etiquette was preserved in prison as in the saloon. Aristocratic distinctions were rigorously observed, except in the presence of the gaolers. Gentlemen gave up their seats to the ladies, and stood talking to them. Polite invitations to dinner were sent from one cell or corridor to another.

There was no lack of amusements in this strange world. Ladies took their work into the court-yard; old nobles sat apart in earnest conversation; the young flirted with the young. A favourite game was the "guillotine;" and dying gracefully brought down general applause. Musical soirées and card-parties were made; lectures were delivered on astronomy, chemistry, and other sciences; epigrams were written, plays and charades acted; novels read aloud. The ladies dressed for the evening parties, and the gentlemen were careful to make their toilet before they appeared in the presence of the ladies.

The deaths of the victims interfered very little with the prison gaieties. When the gaoler entered to read his list, the place of those summoned was immediately taken by others, so that no interruption might occur in the game or other amusements then going on. As the cart which bore the victims to death rattled past, a light jest, or caustic repartee, or trilling mimicry, was all the notice taken of it. Almost all the prisoners wore rouge, and rarely omitted to paint their cheeks after they were summoned to death.

Some, however, preserved a calm and religious decency; met at four in the afternoon to read the solemn prayers for the dying; and tried to introduce a religious spirit.

As the Reign of Terror drew to a close, the accused were not allowed to employ defenders, but the jury was permitted to convict without evidence. Captives were transferred from one prison to another to break the social ties they had contracted; they were no longer allowed to procure their own food, but were supplied with one meal a day called the *gamelle*.

* At the death of this unhappy youth, his uncle, comte de Provence, was recognized by foreign courts as the successor to the throne; and 19 years afterwards, was actually crowned as Louis XVIII., and for ten years enjoyed a pretty tranquil reign.

Simon was a hideous-looking republican, short of stature, without one generous sentiment in his constitution. He used to thrash the young prince, whom he called, the "boy Capet," because he refused to sing the scandalous song written against the king and queen, who were called Monsieur and Madam Veto. The first verse runs thus:

Madame Veto avait promis,
De fair égorger tout Paris;
Mais son coup a manqué,
Grâce a nos canonnières.

Madam Veto swore one day
Paris she would prostrate lay;
But we snipped the tyrant's yoke
And her threats were turned to smoke.

WOMEN OF THE REPUBLIC.

Two women must be mentioned, who played a very conspicuous part in this period of the Revolution, Madame Roland and Madame Tallien.

Madame Roland (1754—1793) is imperishably connected with the history of the Girondists. She was tall, graceful, and lovely, but austere as a Roman matron. Her eyes were a deep blue, her forehead broad, her hair flowed curling over her neck and shoulders, her features were lighted up with an unusual fire, her fascination was irresistible.

Great as was the power of her personal charms, it yielded to that of her voice. Those who had heard it once could never forget its low clear ring, so mellow and so deep. But the real source of her influence was her noble and dauntless enthusiasm. Great as her talents were, they were nothing to her spirit, bold as a hero's, but with all a woman's tenderness. Earnest and thoroughly convinced herself, she could persuade others. Her eloquence sprang from the heart and went to the heart.

There is nothing, in all the history of man, more remarkable than the influence of this engraver's daughter. From budding youth to the scaffold she was always the same pure, resolute, independent being, firm as a rock, and fearless of consequences. It was her genuineness which made her great and gave her influence. It was her high moral character which made her atheistical opinions so dangerous.

She despised the notion of a *constitutional* monarchy, and rightly maintained that a monarch educated in the idea of divine right, could never be satisfied with limited power. Péthion, Buzot, Brissot, and Robespierre, met four times a week at her house to discuss politics. She presided over the meetings, and infused into them her own ardour and enthusiasm.

The admiration which Madame Roland excited was the cause of her husband's rise and ruin. When the Girondist ministry was formed, in 1792, Roland was made Minister of the Interior, but Madame was the centre round which all the Girondists gathered, and she imparted to them her feeling of mistrust of royalty.

The massacre of September, had a great effect upon her. It opened her eyes to a fearful future; and the proclamation of the Republic a few days afterwards gave her no pleasure. She felt that the best men were doomed to fall before the ambition of the most unscrupulous. The whole Girondist party knew by intuition that the days of their power were numbered.

The energetic protest of Roland, against this outrage drew down upon him and his wife the hatred of Danton and Marat. Two days after the execution of the king, Roland resigned. The Jacobins felt that Madame Roland was their enemy, and called her the *Circé* of the Revolution.

The quarrels of the Jacobins and Girondists, which became daily more bitter, led to the destruction of the latter, and Madame Roland did not escape. On the 10th of November (1793), she was taken to the *Place de la Révolution*, now called the *Place de la Concorde*. Where one of the two marble fountains now stands, the red guillotine was erected; and where the Egyptian obelisk rises, stood a clay statue of Liberty. Bowing to this statue, Madame Roland exclaimed, "O Liberty, how many crimes are committed in thy name!" Then laying her head on the block, the axe descended, and she was numbered with the dead.

She has left behind some interesting and curious *Memoirs*, with several other works. Beyond all controversy, Madame Roland was the noblest woman of the age, and had more of the Roman character than any other woman of the French nation, either at this or any other period.

Roland, on hearing of the death of his wife, stabbed himself to the heart. He would have surrendered himself to the Revolutionary tribunal, but, if he had been sent to the guillotine, his property would have been confiscated, and he wished his daughter to enjoy it.

Madame Tallien (1774—1831), daughter of Cabarrus, a Spanish banker, was one of the most beautiful of women, and so kind-hearted that she was called *Our Lady of Mercy*. She was married to Monsieur de Fontenay of Bordeaux, but obtained a divorce, lived with Tallien proconsul of Bordeaux, and exercised over him the greatest influence. Every day she snatched some new victims from the scaffold; till, at length, the leniency of the proconsul aroused the displeasure of Robespierre; he was recalled; and his beautiful mistress thrown into prison.

In prison, Madame Tallien shared the same room and bed as the duchess of Aiguillon and the future empress of France. Their names are still to be seen written side by side on the walls of their cell. Josephine de Beauharnais was always weeping, and seeking by a pack of cards to unravel her fate; but the other two, were bold courageous women, who thought more of overthrowing the tyrants of France, than of being themselves overthrown.

When Tallien visited the prison, the daughter of Cabarrus always urged upon him to rid the world of the despotic Robespierre. On the 9th Thermidor, Robespierre was accused of aiming at the dictatorship; forbidden to defend himself; and executed the next day without trial.

Madame Tallien was, of course, released from prison, and became for a time the queen of Paris. When she entered the theatres she was greeted with unbounded applause. With hair plaited and turned up *à la victime*, green cravat, and crape round her arm; she was idolized by the young men called *Muscadins*, who filled the Palais Royal, carrying in their hands a stout stick, and singing the *Reveil du Peuple*.

In the Consulate, the popularity of this beautiful woman abated. Napoléon would never admit her into his court. In 1805, she married the prince of Chimay (then only count of Caraman), and died in 1831.

THIRD CONSTITUTION.

THE DIRECTORY, OR THERMIDORIAN GOVERNMENT.

FROM 1795 TO 1799.

The Executive. Barras, Rewbell, La Réveillère, Lepreux, Letourneur, and Carnot. Of these, the first three were called the *Triumvirate*, but Barras was by far the most powerful.

Official Residence. The palace of the Luxembourg.

Great Days after the Fall of Robespierre.

13th Vendémiaire, Year IV. (5th October, 1795), Bonaparte made General.

18th Fructidor, Year V. (4th September, 1797), Coup d'état.

18th Brumaire, Year VIII. (9th November, 1799), Directory overthrown.

The **State of Affairs** at the installation of the Directory was most distressing. All France was suffering from that torpid lassitude which invariably follows the excitement of bloodshed. The treasury was exhausted; the assignats (paper-money) were almost worthless; commerce was stagnant; public credit annihilated; a famine prevailed throughout the nation; the army was in want of clothes, provisions, and horses; and the late Convention had sold nearly half the territory of the republic.

In this sad crisis, the directors set to work manfully and discreetly. In a short time, labour and trade revived; the clubs were abandoned

for the workshops ; and agriculture, the arts, and the manufactures, once more seemed likely to flourish.

Of course, the Directory was not established without opposition : Civil war broke out in La Vendée ; a fanatic named Gracchus Babeuf proclaimed himself *tribune of the people*, and tried to make himself a second Robespierre ; an insurrection broke out in the camp at Grenelle ; and a royalist conspiracy was set on foot.

Hoche was sent into La Vendée, and soon crushed the rebellion. Babeuf [*Bar-buff*] was beheaded ; the insurgents at Grenelle were put to the sword ; and the royalist conspiracy proved an utter failure.

National Bankruptcy (1795). The new government supplied itself with money for immediate use by a *forced loan* ; and afterwards created *territorial mandates* for the redemption of the "assignats" [*as-sin-yar*].

Thirty assignats were exchangeable for one mandat [*man-dar*], and every mandat represented a portion of land, and could be applied for its purchase. This device did all very well for a few months ; but, falling into disrepute, led to a national bankruptcy.

The government failed for 1375 millions sterling.

Operations of the Army (1795). The operations of the army, when the Directory came into power, were as hopeless as the commercial and political state of the nation ; but Carnot [*Car-no*], with wonderful acumen, recalled the old generals, and entrusted the army to three young men of great ardour and power : Moreau was sent to replace Pichegru on the Rhine ; Jourdan was sent to take the head of the army in Sambre and Meuse ; and Bonaparte* was sent into Italy.

All the three armies were to act in concert against Austria ; and from this moment followed a series of brilliant victories never surpassed in the annals of the world.

BONAPARTE'S FIRST ITALIAN CAMPAIGN.

(The battles of Montenotte, Dego, Millesimo, Mondovì, Lodi, Castiglione, Roveredo, Bassano, Arcola, and Rivoli.)

FROM 27TH MARCH, 1796, TO THE 10TH DECEMBER, 1797.

Bonaparte arrived at his head-quarters at Nice [*Neece*] on the 27th of March. He found the army destitute of money, food, and clothing ; but well inured to hardships, and ripe for daring.

The leaders were Masséna, Augereau, La Harpe, Serrurier, Murat, and Joubert. "Soldiers !" said the young general the moment he presented himself, "you are ill-fed and as ill-clad ; the government owes you much, but can pay you nothing. Your patience and courage

* Bonaparte, properly Bu-ona-par-te ; but he dropped the *u* and left the final *e* silent in order to make it less Italian and more French.

do you honour, but bring you neither glory nor advantage. I am come to lead you into the most fertile plains of the world ; and to take you where you can find honour, glory, and wealth. Soldiers, will you follow me ?”

This address was received with tumultuous applause ; and Bonaparte was at once received with confidence both by officers and common soldiers.

He had but 36,000 men under his command, and the enemy amounted to 60,000. So he resolved to divide and conquer. He moved his head-quarters to Savona ; separated the Piedmontese from the Austrians ; and attacked each of them separately.

Beaulieu and Colli Overthrown (*April and May, 1796*). On the 11th of April, he won his first victory at Montenottè over the Austrians, commanded by Beaulieu. On the 14th, he repulsed the Piedmontese at Millesimo ; on the 15th, drove the Austrians from Dego ; on the 22nd, won the battle of Mondövi, over the Piedmontese ; on the 10th of May, beat the Austrians at the bridge of Lodi ; and on the 15th, entered Milan without opposition.

The Piedmontese, as a condition of peace, had to pay 21 millions for the expenses of the campaign, and to cede to France Savoy and Nice [*Neece*]. They had also to give to the conqueror 100 of their masterpieces of art.

Thus began this immortal campaign. The army was in raptures, and Paris beside itself with enthusiasm. The Directory twice voted that Bonaparte and his army had “deserved well of their country.” And from this moment, the successful general was virtually the Dictator of France.

While Bonaparte was gathering his laurels in Italy, Jourdan and Moreau were combating with the Germans. They succeeded in driving them back to the Danube. Moreau conquered the archduke Karl at Radstadt, and was on the point of joining Bonaparte in the Tyrol, when Jourdan was defeated by the Austrians, and obliged Moreau to retreat. This retreat is very memorable, inasmuch as Moreau succeeded in reaching France, having conducted his army in safety 200 miles through a hostile country.

Wurmser Overthrown (*Aug. and Sept., 1796*). The Austrians under Beaulieu having been completely worsted, sent into the field marshal Wurmser [*Vairm-ser*], their best general, with a far more redoubtable army.

Wurmser entered Italy with great confidence, but was vanquished by Bonaparte at Lonato, on the 3rd of August, and, two days afterwards, at Castiglione [*Kas-tel-yō-ne*], where marshal Augereau [*O-zjè-ro*] distinguished himself, and was created “duc de Castiglione” for his heroic conduct.

He now threw himself into the valley of the Tyrol to reinforce his army. The indefatigable conqueror passed the Adige [*Ar-dě-zja*];

overthrew the Austrian at Roveredo [*Ro-va-ray'-do*] on the 4th Sept. ; pursued him into the valley of the Brenta ; and defeated him again, on the 8th, at Bassano, where the divisions under Augereau and Messéna won immortal honours.

Wurmser was obliged to retreat, and shut himself up in Mantua. Within four months, Bonaparte had overthrown three generals, and destroyed three armies. The Piedmontese under Colli, and the Austrians under Beaulieu and Wurmser. The spoil was enormous, and all Italy was in terror and admiration of his name.

Battle of Arcola (17 Nov., 1796). Austria, having lost two large armies, sent a third into the field under the command of Alvinzy. It numbered 50,000 men, while Bonaparte could not muster 36,000, and even these were worn out with fatigue and fighting.

Every one expected he would beat a retreat ; but he drew up his men near the town of Arcola in the midst of a morass, over which ran two raised causeways. By being confined to these causeways the enemy had no advantage in numbers, and the whole fight was confined to a mere handful of men.

A bridge led from the causeway to the village, and here the whole brunt of the battle was centered. On the 14th, Augereau [*O-je-ro*] attempted to force the bridge, but was driven back. Bonaparte now sprang forward at full gallop ; threw himself from his horse ; and, seizing a tricolour from the grasp of a dead man, exclaimed, " Men of Lodi, follow me ! " The cannon roared ; grape-shot and musket-balls pattered like hail ; the men who attacked and those who defended the bridge were decimated ; but the Austrians, who were in much greater force, succeeded in retaining their position. The struggle was renewed on the 16th. On the 17th, a column of the French army forded the river lower down, and got into the rear of the enemy. Resistance was no longer possible ; the Austrians gave way ; the bridge was carried ; the battle was won. In this series of fights the Austrians lost 18,000 men, and the French not fewer than 15,000.

In the month of December, 1796, an ill-concerted expedition was dispatched from France for the invasion of Ireland. General Hoche commanded it, and 25,000 men were embarked. They reached Bantry-Bay, but returned to Brest without attempting to disembark.

The Directory, puzzled what to do with the troops sent against Ireland, many of whom were galley-slaves, which could neither be set free nor punished, shipped them over to Great Britain. They were set on shore in Wales on the 23rd February, 1797, but were instantly made prisoners by a party of volunteers under Lord Cawdor.

Battle of Rivoli (1797). Six weeks afterwards, Alvinzy with a new force entered the field. Bonaparte sent Joubert [*Zjoo-bair*] to stop it at Rivoli, while he himself, with all the forces he could muster, hastened to his support.

Joubert had been engaged with the Austrians for 48 hours when Bonaparte came up. The foe was driven back with great slaughter; and this victory decided the fate of Italy.

The victorious army marched without delay to Mantua, where Wurmser [*Vairm-ser*] was besieged; and the Austrians, reduced to the last extremity, capitulated on the 2nd February, and evacuated Italy.

Bonaparte, idolized by all sorts of men, now began to feel his way towards the crown. Affable with his soldiers, haughty and reserved towards the Directors, and familiar with men of literary eminence, he held every one under his power; and paved his way with admirable tact to the supremacy he secretly coveted.

Armistice of Leoben (*April, 1797*). The armies of Hoche and Moreau, having taken the offensive in Germany, Bonaparte marched to Leoben [*La-ō-ben*], in Styria.

On his route, he encountered the archduke Karl, whom he repulsed; and, having reached Leoben, granted an armistice to the archduke, which put an immediate stop to the armies of Hoche and Moreau.

Cisalpine Republic (1797). After the battle of Lodi, Bonaparte organized two states in Italy, one on the south and the other on the north side of the river Po. These two states, in 1797, were united into one, under the title of the *Cisalpine Republic*, Milan being the seat of government.

[In 1805, a deputation from the republic conferred on Napoleon, then emperor of France, the title of *King of Italy*, and it continued a kingdom till the year 1814.]

The Cisalpine Republic embraced Lombardy, Mantua, Bergamo, Brescia, Cremōna, Verōna, and Rovigo, the duchy of Modēna, principality of Massa and Carrāra, and the three legations of Bolōgna, Ferrāra, and the Romagna.

Fall of Venice (*April, 1797*). The Venetian Republic had taken no part in the present contest, but during the absence of Bonaparte, the French garrison at Verōna was massacred in a popular tumult.

Bonaparte made this a pretext of war against Venice, and sent an army under Baraguay d'Hilliers [*Deel-ya*] against the capital. The senate abdicated without a struggle, and the republic fell into the hands of the French.

Ligurian Republic (*May, 1797*). Soon after the fall of Venice, an insurrection broke out in Genōa. Here also the senate abdicated at the approach of the French army, and Genōa with a part of Sardinia was erected into the *Ligurian Republic*. All these Italian republics were governed by a constitution similar to that of the French Directory.

Peace of Campo-Formio (17 October, 1797). Italy being subjugated, Vienna was next threatened; but Austria prevented the invasion by signing at Campo-Formio a treaty of peace.

By this treaty, Austria recognized the Rhine as the boundary of France, and ceded to the conqueror, Mil'an, Mantua, and the Netherlands. France, on the other hand, restored to Austria the city of Venice, Istria, Dalmatia, and the left bank of the Adige [*Ar'-dē-zja*].

18 Fructidor (4 Sept., 1797). In the mean time, the elections of France had taken place, and the royalists had succeeded in returning 48 new deputies, and in getting Pichegru appointed President of the Five Hundred, Barbé-Marbois of the Ancients or Elders, and Barthélemy the new Director. Appearances looked very ominous; and the Republican part of the Executive Government felt that a bold stand must be made, or the royalist cause would certainly outflank them.

At midnight, on the 18 Fructidor, 12,000 armed men, with 40 pieces of cannon, were stationed round the Tuileries. Fifty-three of the deputies, amongst whom were the two presidents and Barthélemy the new Director, were arrested and transported to Cayenne; the elections of 48 of the departments were cancelled; the laws against emigrants rigorously enforced; and 35 of the journals were suspended. This *coup d'état* was the death-blow of the royalists' hopes.

Bonaparte's Return (10 Dec., 1797). Soon after the *coup d'état*, Bonaparte returned with the treaty of Campo-Formio. His entry into Paris was a perfect ovation. Never was general so honoured by the Republic; never conqueror received with such unbounded enthusiasm.

In the fête given in the court of the Luxembourg, an altar was raised in the middle of the court, and the Directors, arrayed as Romans, took their seats on an estrade at the foot; around them sat the ministers, ambassadors, and high officers of state; and over their heads was a triumphal arch, decorated with the colours taken in the late wars.

There was a dead silence. Presently a roar of cannon, a roll of drums, a flourish of trumpets, and a shout of innumerable voices, rent the air, announcing the approach of the great hero of the day. All eyes were fixed upon him. He was very young, slender, and delicate; but his ardent eye, pale Roman countenance, and dignified manners, produced an indescribable sensation. *Huzza! The Republic for ever! Bonaparte for ever!* sounded on all sides.

Talleyrand, in a neat speech introduced the general; Bonaparte addressed the crowd; and then Barras spoke, pointing out England as a field to which the young hero should next direct his attention. The speeches being over, a banner was presented to the army, and

on it were inscribed, in letters of gold, the spoils taken in the late wars, the victories won, and the treaties made.

There were 150,000 prisoners, 66 standards, and 11,000 fire-arms. There had been 67 engagements, and 18 victories.

Conquest of Switzerland (12 April, 1798). While Bonaparte was in Italy, the Vaudois [*Vo-dwor*], oppressed by the canton of Berne, applied to France for succour; and general Brune was sent to their assistance.

Most of the cantons of Switzerland resisted this interference with heroic courage, but they were compelled at length to succumb. Genève was now added to France; and the Helvetian Republic had to change its ancient constitution for one after the model of the "Year III."

Revolution of Rome (1797—1799). Four months before the conquest of Switzerland was completed, the French general Duphot [*Du-fo*], stationed in Rome, had been killed in a riot.

Berthier [*Bair-té-a*] was dispatched to avenge his death; and occupied the city without resistance. The pope (Pius VI.) was taken prisoner, and confined for a time in Florence; but being ordered to Paris, died on the road, at the age of 80.

Rome, like the rest of Italy and the cantons of Switzerland, was now converted into a French Republic; and the Directory saw itself at the head of the Helvetian, Batavian, Ligurian, Cisalpine, and Roman Republics, all constituted on their own model.

BONAPARTE'S EGYPTIAN EXPEDITION (1798).

Battles of Alexandria, the Pyramids, and the Nile.

The real power of France at this period was the army, and the idol of the army was Bonaparte. It was most desirable, therefore, for the Directors to keep the young general employed, and to find fresh fields for his military ambition.

With this view, they sent him to invade Egypt, without a shadow of provocation. He left Toulon on the 19th of May with a fleet of 400 sail, accompanied with a society of *savants*.

On the 15th June, the knights of Malta delivered up to him the keys of their citadel. On the 2nd of July, the army disembarked at the Marabout. On the same day, Alexandria was taken. And on the 25th, Napoléon Bonaparte entered Cairo the capital, after having defeated the Mamelukes at the battle of the Pyramids.

Battle of the Nile (1 Aug., 1798). William Pitt, the English prime minister, justly alarmed at these encroachments, formed a coalition against France with all the powers of Europe, except Prussia and Spain.

Admiral Nelson was sent to watch the French fleet in the Mediterranean; found it moored near Rosetta, at the mouth of the Nile; drove 15 of his ships between it and the island; and with the other 15 attacked it fiercely in front. The result was one of the most glorious victories in the annals of Great Britain.

In this action, Brueys the French Admiral was slain, and only two ships of the whole fleet escaped. This battle gave a mortal blow to the French Navy.

Bonaparte, notwithstanding, completed the subjugation of Egypt; and employed all means in his power to gain the good-will of the inhabitants, by conforming to their usages, respecting their religion, and founding an institute in Cairo.

The battle cry of Nelson in this engagement was "Victory or Westminster Abbey." For this victory he was created "Baron Nelson of the Nile."

BONAPARTE'S SYRIAN EXPEDITION (1799).

(Battles or Sieges.—Jaffa, Acre, Mount-Tabor, and Aboukir.)

After the conquest of Egypt, Bonaparte undertook that of Syria, in the hope of penetrating to India, and assailing the British empire there.

He marched upon Gaza, which readily opened its gates to him. He next carried Jaffa. From Jaffa he marched to Acre, which he invested; but it was so stoutly defended by Sir Sidney Smith, that he was unable to carry it.

While he was still before Acre, a combined army of Turks and Mamelukes advanced against him, and he went to meet them. A desperate battle was fought near Mount Tabor, in which he was the conqueror; and, satisfied with this victory, he raised the siege of Acre, and returned to Cairo.

Reverses (1799). The Directory, in addition to France, had to govern Holland, Switzerland, and Italy, all of which had to be defended against the coalition.

General Brune was sent with 10,000 men to protect Holland; Bernadotte [*Bair-nă-dot'*] was sent to command the army of the Rhine; Jourdan [*Zjoor-dar'n*] was sent with 40,000 men to the Danube; Messëna with 30,000 to occupy Switzerland; Schérer received the army of Italy, 50,000 strong; and Macdonald had that of Naples.

Jourdan was defeated on the 25th of March by the archduke Karl at *Stockach*, near the lake Constance, and Germany was lost to France.

Schérer, a month later, was defeated at *Magnano* [*Man-yar'-no*], and lost successively the Adige [*Ar-dê-zja*], the Mincio, and the Adda. He was now pursued by the maledictions of his army, and

compelled to resign it to Moreau, a simple general of division serving under him. Moreau had to retreat.

On the 18th of June, Macdonald, while attempting a junction with Moreau, was defeated by Souvarrov, the famous Russian general, at Trebia [*Tra-bě-a*], after a dreadful battle which lasted three days. All Italy, except Genõa, was now lost to France.

Two months later, Souvarrov again defeated the French at Novi [*No'-vee*], and Joubert [*Zjo-bair*] was numbered amongst the slain.

Battle of Aboukir* (25 July, 1799). On his return to Egypt, Bonaparte was informed that 18,000 Turks had landed on the promontory of Aboukir [*Ar-boo-keer*]. He hastened to attack them, and gained another victory. This is the only battle on record in which the entire army of the enemy was destroyed.

Bonaparte being now informed of the losses in Germany and Italy, and the deplorable state of France, left Kléber with the army, and returned to Paris, resolved to overthrow the government.

N.B. In 1800 Kléber was assassinated by a young Turk, and Egypt was lost to France.

THE DIRECTORY OVERTHROWN.

18 Brumaire, Year VIII. (9 Nov., 1799). The conqueror of Italy, Egypt, and Syria, crossed France in triumph, and the moderate party welcomed him to Paris with unbounded enthusiasm. He affected great moderation; lodged in an apartment in the Rue Chanteraine [*Sharnt-rain*], and kept his own counsel without communicating it to any one.

The electors for the Year VII. had proved extremely democratic. Siéyès [*Say-yez*], the enemy of the Directory, was appointed to the post of the retiring Director, and made overtures to Bonaparte to overthrow the Constitution.

The general, having gained over a large number of the "Elders," induced them to remove the Legislative Assembly to St. Cloud [*San Cloo'*], under pretence of being more free; and, in the meantime, gained the command of the military in Paris.

All things being prepared, Bonaparte presented himself to the Council of Elders at St. Cloud; said the government was wholly incompetent to its duties; and that the present Council was forthwith dissolved.

He then went to the Five-hundred, assembled in the Orangery, and presided over by his brother Lucien. His presence excited a furious tempest. *Down with the tyrant! Down with the Dictator!* resounded on all sides.

* This must not be confounded with the *battle of the Nile* sometimes called the battle of Aboukir; nor with the *battle of Alexandria* won by Abercromby over the French on the 8th of March, 1801, also called the battle of Aboukir'.

The soldiers, whom he had stationed at the door, hearing these cries, and thinking the life of their favourite in danger, rushed in. "In the name of general Bonaparte," cried Murat [*Mu-rar*], "this Council is dissolved. Let all good citizens retire. Forward, grenadiers!"

The drums smothered the cries of indignation which burst forth. The soldiers advanced. The deputies made their escape through the windows. The Revolution was complete. The republic was at an end.

Bonaparte, Siéyès, and Roger Ducos [*Du-ko*], constituted themselves into a provisional government for one month, in which time they promised to provide a new constitution, and a governing body better able to manage the affairs of the nation than the imbecile Directory.

Before Siéyès made his overtures to Bonaparte, he proposed his plan to Moreau, but Moreau was frightened at its audacity. He next went to Bernadotte, but Bernadotte's excessive caution hindered him from closing with it. Augereau [*O-zjé-ro*] was the next person he addressed upon the subject, but Augereau could not be made to understand it. Finally, it was committed to Bonaparte, and the Corsican grasped it in a moment.

FOURTH CONSTITUTION.

THE CONSULATE.

FROM 10TH NOVEMBER 1799 TO 18TH MAY, 1804.

Constitution of the Year VIII. (Dec., 1799). The provisional government provided a constitution which was ratified by three millions of votes. It vested the power of government in three Consuls, 60 Senators, 100 Tribunes, and 300 Legislators, called the *Corps Législatif*.

The first and second Consuls were to hold their office for ten years; the third Consul for only five. The powers of the First were almost absolute. He promulgated the laws; appointed or dismissed ministers, ambassadors, officers of the army and navy, and all judges, except justices of the peace and members of the Court of Cassation.

In 1802 the term of office for all three consuls was their natural life.

The "Conservative Senate" was not a legislative body. Its duties were to see that the laws were obeyed, and to elect the future Consuls. They appointed the Tribunes and Legislators, and even filled up vacancies in their own body, from candidates presented to them by the *Corps Législatif*.

In 1814 the Senate was replaced by the *Chamber of Deputies*.

The sole province of the Tribunes was discussion. When the First Consul submitted any motion to the Legislature, the State Counsellors

advocated its adoption, and the Tribunes pleaded against it. The Legislative body then acted as judges, and either received or rejected it, as they thought fit.

In 1807 the Tribunate was suppressed, and the Corps Législatif was addressed by the *Conseil d'Etat*.

The Legislative body voted the laws after they had been discussed by the Tribunes and Counsellors. In 1814, this body was replaced by the *Chamber of Deputies*.

During the "Hundred Days," the Chamber of Deputies was called the *Chamber of Representatives*. In 1815, it was again called the *Chamber of Deputies*. In 1852, it resumed the name of the *Corps Législatif*.

Bonaparte, First Consul (9 Nov. 1799). Bonaparte was elected by the people First Consul, and chose for his colleagues Cambacérès and Lebrun. The Consuls named the 60 Senators, and appointed Talleyrand foreign minister, and Fouché minister of police.

In obedience to a general wish, overtures of peace were now made to the allied powers; but as England and Austria doubted the sincerity of this offer, they declined it.

On the 30th Pluviôse (19 Feb., 1800), the Consuls took up their quarters in the Tuileries, which had been occupied by the Convention and Council of Five-Hundred up to the 18th Brumaire (9 Nov.). The same day, Bonaparte gave his sister, Caroline, in marriage to general Murat, the son of an innkeeper, the best cavalry officer in all Europe, and called *le Beau Sabreur*.

BONAPARTE'S SECOND ITALIAN CAMPAIGN (1800).

(*Battles.—Montebello and Marengo.*)

Montebello (6 June, 1800). Austria had two armies in the field, one on the Rhine and the other in Italy. Bonaparte sent general Moreau to the Rhine, and went himself into Italy to encounter his old enemies.

In order to take them by surprise, he led his army over the Alps, a gigantic labour, apparently impracticable. Having first sent general Lannes, with an entire division, to debouch into Italy by the valley of Aôsta, he directed Moncey with 5000 men to cross over by St. Gothard. Another 5000 crossed the Simplon; a third went by Mount Cenis [*Sa-nez*]; while he himself, with 40,000 men, took his route over Mount St. Bernard.

The cartouches and stores were conveyed on the backs of mules. The cannons, dismounted and packed in hollow pine-trees, were dragged over the mountains by soldiers, 100 to a cannon. Bonaparte himself, mounted on a mule, and not on a fiery charger, as he is represented by David [*Dav-e-de*], began his ascent on the 17th of May.

With enormous labour and exemplary patience the several armies effected their respective tasks, and united at the foot of St. Bernard, on the Italian side. Bonaparte lost no time, but pressed on with all dispatch to cross the Po; fell upon general Ott at Montebello; and won the first great victory, the chief merit of which was due to general Lannes [*Lann*], whom Bonaparte, when he was emperor, created *duc de Montebello*.

Marengo (14 June, 1800). Eight days after the battle of Montebello, the Austrians, under marshal Melas, fell upon the two wings of the French army at Marengo; and so impetuous was their attack, that the French were obliged to give way.

At this moment, the First Consul launched into the plain the grenadiers of the Consular guard. They formed into a square; stood like flints against the enemy; stopped their further advance; and received the cognomen of the *Granite Redoubt*.

This well-planned and obstinate resistance turned the fortune of the day. Other divisions had time to come up, Kellerman with his dragoons, and Desaix with his reserves. "Forward!" shouted Bonaparte. "Forward!" resounded along the whole line. The charge was terrible; the Austrians gave ground; the disorder became general; the victory was complete. Italy was now reconquered. The campaign had occupied less than six weeks; and Bonaparte again returned to Paris more honoured than ever.

The loss of Austria at Marengo was 4500 killed, 6000 wounded, 5000 prisoners, 12 standards, and 30 cannons.

Battle of Hohenlinden (3 Dec., 1800). When Moreau reached the army of the Rhine he covered himself with glory, and rivalled the conqueror of Montebello and Marengo by his splendid achievements.

He first forced the passage of the Lech [*Lehh*]; then got possession of Augsburg; next won the battle of Hochstedt [*Hoke-stat*]; then that of Neuburg.

Austria now summoned her whole male population to arms; and the archduke Johann, with 120,000 men, encountered the republican army at Hohenlinden. Moreau was victorious; and 11,000 prisoners, with 100 pieces of cannon, fell into his hands. The way to Vienna being open, he pressed forward without a moment's delay; gained fresh laurels; and compelled the emperor, even in his own capital, to sue for peace.

In 25 days, he had subdued 90 leagues of territory; forced four formidable lines; beat 100,000 men twice; and made 25,000 prisoners.

The Infernal Machine (21 Dec., 1800). In 1792, a number of Royalists united into a free company to put down the revolution

and restore the Bourbons to the throne. It was first organized by Jean Cottereau, surnamed the *Chouan* (owl), either from his rallying cry, or from a nickname given to one of his ancestors, a misanthropic woodcutter. The company went by the name of *Chouans* or *Companions of Jehu*. The latter appellation being given them from some fanciful analogy between their self-imposed task, and that appointed to Jehu, on being set over the kingdom of Israël :

Jehu was anointed king to cut off Ahab and Jezebel with all their house, and all the priests of Baal. According to the Chouan creed, Louis XVIII. was *Jehu*, and his "companions" were to see him anointed king, that he might cut off, root and branch, all who had taken part in the assassination of his royal brother.

Cottereau was slain in an encounter with the republican army in 1794, and George Cadoudal, the *Great Bullet-head*, succeeded him in office.

The stronghold of the Chouans was La-Vendée, where some 5000 lay concealed ; but all Brittany, Auvergne [*O-vairn*], and the Jura, were under their secret influence.

In the early part of 1800, Bonaparte succeeded in breaking up this dangerous society ; several of the leaders were slain, and others fled from France. George Cadoudal escaped to England.

In December, some of those who still survived resolved to assassinate their great enemy, on his return from Italy ; and planted, in the Rue St. Nicaise, an Infernal Machine, to shoot him on his way to the opera.

Bonaparte drew near ; by some accident the barrel hung fire ; but scarcely had he passed the fatal spot, when it exploded like thunder, shattered the windows of his carriage, and injured several in the crowd.

This diabolical attempt caused an immense sensation. Fouché, minister of police, attributed it to the Red-republicans, 130 of whom were transported on suspicion ; but the true conspirators were subsequently discovered ; and all the Chouans that could be laid hold of were put to death.

Treaty of Luneville (9th Feb., 1801.) Peace was ultimately concluded between France and Austria by the *treaty of Lunéville* [*Lu-nă-veel*], which confirmed and extended that of Campo-Formio.

To France it gave Belgium and the Rhenish provinces, making the Rhine the frontier of the republic ; ceded to Austria the states of Venice ; secularized the church property of Germany, to indemnify the secular princes ; re-established the pope in his dominions ; and recognized the Cisalpine, Ligurian, Helvetian, and Batavian republics.

This important treaty was followed by others, bearing on Rome, Naples, Sardinia, Portugal, and Russia.

Peace of Amiens (27 March, 1802). Only one enemy now remained, and that was England. William Pitt having resigned office, was succeeded by Mr. Addington; and the new cabinet, desirous to achieve the pacification of Europe, signed the *treaty of Amiens*, by which England was allowed to retain possession of Ceylon, Trinidad, and an open port at the Cape of Good Hope. France gave up Rome, Naples, and Elba, but received back her colonies. The Republic of the Seven Isles was recognized. Malta was restored to the Knights of St. John. Spain and Holland regained their colonies. And Turkey was restored to its integrity.

Expedition to St. Domingo (1802). Bonaparte, being now released from all foreign wars, turned his thoughts to the island of St. Domingo, the best colony of France. It had recently revolted. The blacks under Toussaint Louverture, had murdered the whites, and committed the most frightful ravages.

General Leclerc, with 40,000 men, was sent to reduce the island to submission. He took the negro-chief prisoner, and sent him to Paris, where he died; but yellow fever decimated the French troops; Leclerc himself fell a prey to the disease; and St. Domingo was lost beyond recovery.

Reforms. Bonaparte certainly well-improved the time of peace, in reducing anarchy to order, restoring commerce, and reforming the administration.

He placed a *Préfet* at the head of each department, a *Sous-Préfet* over each *arrondissement*, and a Mayor over each commune. He re-established regularity in the civil and military administration; and prepared his "Civil Code," a monument of genius, and a model of legislation.

He recalled, by a decree of amnesty, 150,000 emigrants; won over several royalists, to whom he confided important functions; restored the Christian religion; and signed a "concordat" with Pope Pius VII., which gave nine archbishops and 41 bishops to France.

He reorganized the public schools; revived industry and commerce; instituted the Bank of France; and multiplied the means of communication by canals, bridges, roads, and ports.

On the 19th May, 1802, he founded the famous civil and military order called the *Legion of Honour*, of which he was himself the head. This order was created for the reward of all sorts of merit, military, literary, commercial, benevolent, or scientific.

Some of his measures, however, were arbitrary and objectionable. Thus, he crushed conspiracies by arbitrary proscriptions and special courts; he enchaind the press; expelled the most energetic of the Tribunes; and constituted himself a despotic ruler in a free republic.

Bonaparte, Consul for Life (2 Aug., 1802). France was not backward in recognizing these services; and a *senatus-consultum*, ratified by more than $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions of suffrages, declared him "Consul for life," with the right of naming his successor.

Two days afterwards, the *Constitution of the Year X.* was decreed, vesting the whole executive power in his hands; taking from the people every iota of their power; and modifying the institutions to the new form of government.

Of the 3,577,259 votes, 3,568,885 were in favour of this appointment.

Fresh Rupture (22 May, 1802). The "Peace of Amiens" was but of short duration. Bonaparte insisted on uniting Piedmont and Elba to the French territory, and England refused to give up Malta so long as these encroachments were persisted in. Each was obstinate, and their persistency brought about that frightful war which lasted for 12 years.

Bonaparte was extremely mad with England for daring to beard him thus, and determined to make a descent upon the island. For this purpose, he assembled a formidable army on the northern coast; formed the famous *Camp of Boulogne*; constructed a vast number of gun-boats and flat transports; and increased his military stores and munitions of war. England also girded herself for battle.

Pichegru's Conspiracy (1804). While these preparations were going on, another formidable conspiracy was concocted against the First Consul by the *chouans* or royalist conspirators, at the head of which were Pichegru and George Cadoudal. Moreau was privy to the plot, though he was no accomplice in it.

The conspiracy was discovered. Pichegru strangled himself in prison; Cadoudal and 12 others were executed; and Moreau was sentenced to two years' imprisonment, a sentence commuted afterwards to a voluntary banishment to North America.

Pichegru (1761—1804) was born of poor parents, educated in a monastery, and afterwards sent to the college of Brienne. At an early age, he went with his regiment to America; and the names of Pichegru and Washington go hand in hand in the War of Independence. The most brilliant of Pichegru's exploits in behalf of France was the conquest of Holland, for which the Convention conferred on him the command of the Rhenish army. In April, 1795, he was recalled to suppress the Paris insurrections, and succeeded so well, that he was called *His Country's Saviour*. On his return to the Rhine, he entered into negotiations with Condé for the restoration of the Bourbons, and was transported to Cayenne, whence he made his escape to England, became acquainted with George Cadoudal, and joined the conspiracy against Bonaparte the First Consul.

Moreau (1763—1813) was certainly one of the most celebrated generals of the Republic. He first served under Pichegru; was made general of division in 1794; and, not long after, commander-in-chief of the army of the Rhine, where he effected that admirable retreat, which has won for him immortal glory. Bonaparte entrusted him with the armies of the Danube and Rhine, and his splendid victory at Hohenlinden mainly contributed to the Peace of Lunéville. He lived an exile in America till 1813, when he embarked for Europe, and took part with the allies against Napoléon; but

died the same year from the amputation of his leg, which had been fractured by a cannon ball.

Execution of Duc D'Enghien (21 March, 1804). Whatever justification there might be for the execution of Pichegru and his accomplices, there can be none for that of the duc D'Enghien [*Darn-ze-ah'n*].

This young man, the last scion of the noble house of Condé, was living at Baden [*Bard'n*] as a private gentleman, but was regarded with a jealous eye by the First Consul, who chose to believe him implicated in Pichegru's conspiracy, though there was not a tittle of evidence in proof of it.

His house was surrounded by a body of dragoons, and his person brought forcibly to Paris. Upon reaching the barriers, the escort was directed to conduct the prisoner to Vincennes [*Varn-cenn'*], where he was tried by a court-martial; condemned to death; and shot half-an-hour afterwards in the castle fosse.

This was a most atrocious assassination, flimsily covered by a trial, but without one single plea to justify it; and not all the glory of the great conqueror can wipe from his name the stain of this foul murder.

Napoleon made Emperor (18 May, 1804). The Pichegru conspiracy wonderfully subverted the ambitious designs of the First Consul; and on the 2nd Floréal, Year XII., the Senate begged him to accept the title of Emperor.

The petition of the Senate was referred to the nation; ratified by $3\frac{1}{2}$ million of votes; and the constitution was again modified to the new order of things.

Of course, an Emperor wants his court, his nobles, his crown ministers, and palace appointments. So the Emperor's brothers, Joseph and Louis, were created *princes*; 18 military officers were made marshals; and there were besides, chamberlains and other dignitaries, suitable to the occasion. Louis, nominally styled Louis XVIII., living at the time in Sweden, protested against this usurpation; but the feeble voice was lost amidst the noise and clamour of the coronation.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS DURING THE REVOLUTION.

The whole style of fashionable society, just prior to the Revolution, was frivolous in the extreme, and nothing was thought of but amusements. To dress, sing, dance, and act plays, was the sole business of life; and the most desired stretch of intellect was to make complimentary speeches and improvise epigrams.

When Benjamin Franklin came into fashion, an entire change came over the spirit of the Parisians. Everything was *à la Franklin*, and a studied neatness of dress, simplicity of manners, and bluntness of speech were affected.

Next to the Franklin, followed the English mania, an exaggeration of the other. Political clubs were everywhere formed, in imitation of the London clubs; and gentlemen thought it English-like to abandon mixed parties and the domestic hearth, to dine and sup at their clubs.

As the Revolution advanced, and its sanguinary character became developed, fashion, affectation, and even familiar intercourse, were for a time suspended, and an unnatural gravity, caution, and frigidity, pervaded all classes of society.

On the fall of Robespierre, the whole nation woke as from a nightmare, and gave way to the most unbounded excesses of gaiety. The women especially seemed frantic with joy, and plunged into almost incredible dissipation.

This is the more easily accounted for, as the nobles and good old families were almost extirpated; and *parvenus* were the leaders of society in right of their talent, wealth, or official rank.

This state of things continued till the era of Bonaparte. The First Consul and his wife Joséphine were both persons of good taste, and rigidly insisted on decorum and politeness. The terms *Monsieur* and *Madame* again came into use, and purity of speech followed in the wake of purity of manners.

Amongst other changes introduced in this eventful period must be noticed the hour of dining. At the beginning of the reign of Louis XVI., the fashionable dinner-hour was two o'clock; but during the Revolution, it was five or six.

In the reign of François I., it was:—

Lever à cinq, diner à neuf,
Souper à cinq, coucher à neuf,
Faire vivre d'ans nonant-et-neuf.

To rise at five and dine at nine,
To sup at five and sleep at nine,
Is the way to live to ninety and nine.

COSTUME DURING THE REVOLUTION.

(1) **Of Gentlemen.** In the early part of the reign of Louis XVI., fine gentlemen wore suits of silver tissue, white shoes and stockings, a black cloak, bordered with rich embroidery and lined with cloth of silver, a black velvet bonnet, jewellery in profusion, and powdered hair.

Soon after Franklin appeared, the plainness of his attire excited universal attention, and the court and people discarded their gold and silver lace, their embroidery and jewellery, their powder and white shoes, and appeared with their hair cut straight, thick black shoes, and plain brown coats.

When the English mania prevailed, high top-boots with thick soles, knee breeches, a dress coat with long tails and stiff high collar were adopted. It was thought John-Bull-like to assume a huskiness of speech, a discourtesy of manners, and a swaggering vulgarity of deportment. To complete this caricature, every fine gentleman or *muscadin*, as he was called, carried in his hand a thick cudgel, termed a *constitution*.

In the Reign of Terror, the general costume was a grey blouse, a hairy cap, a mass of uncurled hair, thick red-heeled boots, and a cudgel. The Jacobins wore a costume called a "carmagnole" [*car-man-yole*], consisting of a blouse, a red cap, and a tricoloured girdle.

In the Consulate, gentlemen wore their hair straight, and combed over their temples and forehead. Top-boots and breeches were still in vogue, long-tailed coats, broad-brimmed hats, and immense cravats almost burying the chin, and terminating with long floating ends.

¶ The Ecclesiastical habit was forbidden almost from the commencement of the Revolution, but ecclesiastics, for a long time continued to dress in black.

¶ The Revolutionary Troops wore a *blue* uniform, and were, therefore, termed the "Blues," in contradistinction to the royal troops, who were called the "Whites," from the white livery of the Bourbons.

(2) Of Ladies. In the early part of the reign of Louis XVI., hoops and paint were universal; and the hair, loaded with flour and grease, was drawn up into a high pyramid; but the queen, losing her hair from a violent illness, gave a change to the head-dress, and every lady appeared with a "flat-head."

Powder was forbidden by the Republican government from the very commencement. In the middle of the Revolution, the hair was worn in the "mop style." After the reign of Terror, it was turned up *à la sacrifice*. And in the Directory and Consulate it was dressed in the Greek fashion.

Pierre's pretty tale of *Paul and Virginia* brought the "shepherd fashion" into vogue. Hoops were laid aside, flounces discarded, silks and satins, jewellery and so on, for a taffeta mantle, a white muslin "frock" so limp and narrow that it looked like a sack, a plain straw hat, and other appointments worn by stage shepherdesses.

Next to the Chloe and Delia style of dress, came the Grecian of the Directory, which continued in fashion till a favourite actress, in the character of a Chinese girl, chose to appear upon the stage with a profusion of frills; from which moment ruffs and frills were the prevailing mode.

CELEBRITIES SINCE THE FALL OF MONARCHY.

The literature of the period was at a very low ebb. In the drama it was bombastic, shallow in philosophy, and mawkish in poetry; so that almost the only persons worthy of notice are some three or four chemists and natural philosophers. Foremost stands the name of Lavoisier, with his coadjutors Fourcroy, Guyton de Morveau, and Berthollet [*Bair-tôl-lay*], who belong to the era of the empire. Laharpe was the principal author, but was no genius. His writings are dull and pompous, and he himself conceited, mercenary, and vain. David [*Dav-ede*] founded his new school of painting; Auvergne [*O-vairn*] composed the music of the first comic opera; and Philidor, the greatest chess-player that ever lived, published his *Analysis of Chess*, still a standard work.

Lavoisier (1743—1794), the great chemist, has made himself a name by his discovery that "Oxygen is the supporter of combustion, by uniting with combustible substances." He has also rendered invaluable services to commerce by his application of chemistry to manufactures and agriculture. Lavoisier was employed by government to improve the manufacture of gunpowder, and to ascertain the exact weight of a cubic inch of water at the point of its greatest density, for the decimal system of "weights and measures." He is further known as the creator of the new nomenclature of chemistry, a noble work in which he was assisted by Guyton de Morveau, Fourcroy, and Berthollet [*Bair-tôl-lay*]. This great chemist was guillotined by order of the Revolutionary Tribunal, on the ridiculous charge of adulterating tobacco.

HISTORY OF FRENCH PAINTING (continued from page 243).

PART II. THE STATUESQUE SCHOOL.

Since the days of Nicolas Poussin, Philippe de Champagne, and Lesueur, who flourished in the middle of the 17th century, the French school of painting had undergone a gradual decline. Lebrun and his followers were mere decorators to royalty, and filled enormous spaces at so much a foot.

Under Louis XV., Vanloo and Bouchet degraded the art to the lowest state of insipidity. The latter embellished the royal saloons with portraits of the king's favourites, prostituting his noble art to the basest and most mercenary purposes.

Greuze, with more original talent and nobler bent, made several efforts to elevate the taste of the day, but found nothing congenial to it, except subjects of very doubtful morality. He lived before David [*Dav-e-de*], but belongs to the school called the *Romantic*, founded after the restoration.

¶ During the Revolution, DAVID (1748—1825), founded a new era of painting, characterized by a morbid imitation of the antique. This school almost confined itself to a reproduction of the Greek statues, arrayed in a classic costume. It may be compared to the pleiad-school of poetry, and David may be called the Ronsard of painting.

His pictures are mere groups of statues, all of one uniform type. The flesh hard as marble, the attitudes theatrical, the style lifeless and tame. Nevertheless, he was a painter of considerable power, and well deserves to be honoured as the "Artist of the Revolution."

His best piece is the *Oath of the Horatii*, which possesses much truth both in expression and drawing. After this he rapidly declined. His *Rape of the Sabines*, modelled after the bas-reliefs of the ancients, is full of extravagance and French sentimentality. In some other of his paintings he has fitted French heads on Greek limbs, and made Frenchmen strut in Grecian garments, and gesticulate like Athenians.

His *Bonaparte Crossing the Alps* outhierods Herod in romance. The prancing charger, the fluttering shawl, and the theatrical attitude, but ill-represent the young general, buttoned in his grey great coat to the chin, and toiling through the deep snow on the back of his steady mule.

Of his other pieces, the most celebrated are the *Oath of the Jeu de Paume*, the *Death of Murat*, the *Coronation of the Emperor*, *Death of Socràtès*, and *Mars disarmed* (see p. 412).

THE EMPIRE.

NAPOLÉON I.

FROM 1804 TO 1814. *Contemporary with George III.*

Kingdom. In 1804, the 83 departments were increased to 107, by the addition of Belgium, the left bank of the Rhine, the republic of Geneva, and Piedmont. In 1812 the empire contained 130 departments from the addition of Holland, Westphalia, the Hanseatic towns, Hanover, Parma, Tuscany, the States of Genoa, and the Roman States.

Married twice. First Joséphine, widow of the comte Beauharnais. She was divorced in 1810, because she bore him no children, and he then married Maria-Louisa, arch-duchess of Austria.

Issue. Napoléon, called from his cradle *King of Rome*, but better known as duke of Reichstadt; recognized by the Napoléonists; as Napoléon II.; died in Austria in 1832.

Kinsmen. Joseph, afterwards *King of Spain*, died 1845.

Lucien, died 1840.

Elisa, married prince Bacciochi, and died 1820.

Louis, afterwards *King of Holland*; married Hortense de Beauharnais, and died 1846. The emperor Napoleon III. was his son.

Pauline, married twice: First, general Leclerc, then prince Borghèse; died 1825.

Caroline, married Murat, afterwards *King of Naples*; died 1839.

Jerome, afterwards *King of Westphalia*; married Katharine of Wurtemberg, and died 1860.

Chief Residence. The Tuileries.

Histories of Napoleon by Arnault, Norvins, Tissot, Thiers, Walter Scott, &c.

Napoleon Crowned (2 December, 1804). Bonaparte was consecrated emperor of the French, under the name and title of

Napoléon I., by Pius VII., in the cathedral church of Nôtre Dame; but he would not allow the pope to *crown* him.

He repudiated the notion of the Roman pontiff being the source of all temporal and ecclesiastical power, and would not countenance it even by an idle ceremony. He had raised himself to his present position, and no one should place the crown upon his head, but the hand that won it. So, taking it from the altar, and raising it to his brow, he exclaimed, "I swear to maintain the integrity of the present empire; to honour the existing laws; to impose no tax unauthorized by the Legislative body; and to respect in all things the welfare of my people."

Having crowned himself, he proceeded in like manner to crown Joséphine, as empress of the French.

Next year, he went to Milan; encircled his brow, in imitation of Charlemagne, with the famous *iron crown* of the Lombards; raised the Cisalpine Republic into a kingdom; assumed to himself the title of *King of Italy*; and nominated his step-son, Eugène Beauharnais, *Viceroy*.

He next united Genôa to his empire; and gave it as an appanage to prince Bacciochi [*Bak'-ke-ok'-ke*], the husband of his sister Elisa Bonaparte (1805).

THIRD COALITION, AND AUSTRO-RUSSIAN WAR (1804—1805).

The establishment of the Italian kingdom, and union of Genôa and Piedmont to the empire, were regarded by Mr. Pitt, again prime minister, with considerable dissatisfaction; and he induced Austria and Russia to join him in a new coalition.

Napoléon was at Boulogne, preparing for his descent upon England, when he was informed that 222,000 Austrians were advancing in three bodies towards the Rhine and Adigé; and that two Russian armies were on their march to join them. So, quitting his camp without delay, he crossed the Rhine at the head of 160,000 men, and advanced into Germany; while Masséna was sent into Italy.

Trafalgar (21 October, 1805). Scarcely had the emperor crossed the Rhine, when the combined fleets of France and Spain, under Admiral Villeneuve [*Veel-nerve*], were signally defeated at Trafalgar by Lord Nelson.

The Franco-Spanish fleet numbered 33 sail of the line, the English 28; yet so complete the victory, that only 13 ships of all the combined fleet escaped.

This victory cost England the life of her gallant Admiral, but secured to her the sovereignty of the seas, which Napoléon never again attempted to dispute.

Austerlitz (2 December, 1805). The disaster at Trafalgar was balanced by a series of victories on land by Napoléon and his generals.

Masséna drove the archduke Karl out of *Italy*; Murat [*Murar*] triumphed at *Vertingen*, *Dupont*, and *Husslach*; Ney, at *Echingen*.

Napoléon, having crossed the Danube, occupied Bavaria; made himself master of Ulm; and entered Vienna on the 13th November.

From Vienna he marched to Austerlitz, in Moravia, to meet the combined armies of Russia and Austria, under the command of their respective emperors. The number of the allies were 84,000, of which 16,000 were cavalry; that of the French was 80,000.

Bernadotte [*Bair-na-dott*] commanded the centre; Soult the right wing; Lannes [*Lann*] the left; and Murat the cavalry; while 20 of the best battalions formed the reserve.

At sunset, on the 2nd of December, Napoléon passed along his lines: "Soldiers," said he, "this battle must be a thunder-clap." It was enough. The enthusiasm of his troops was unbounded; and shouts of applause greeted him as he rode along.

By one o'clock, he had obtained the most brilliant of all his victories. 15,000 of the foe perished on the field; 2000 more were drowned by the breaking up of the ice; 20,000 were made prisoners; 40 colours and 200 pieces of cannon were the spoils of the day.

Peace of Presburg (26th December, 1805). Two days after the battle, Francis II. went in person to Napoléon's tent to sue for peace, and signed a treaty on the 26th at Presburg, recognizing his claim to the kingdom of Italy, and ceding to him Dalmatia and Illyria.

At the same time, Bavaria and Wurtemberg were erected into kingdoms for their fidelity to the French emperor, and were greatly enriched by spoils from Austria.

Prussia had remained neuter; but received the Electorate of Hanover, under the hope of embroiling her with England, who would doubtless demand back this family inheritance.

FROM THE PEACE OF PRESBURG TO THE FOURTH COALITION (1806).

After this brilliant campaign, which lasted only three months, Napoléon returned to Paris, where he was received with unbounded enthusiasm, and honoured with the title of "GREAT."

It was now that he repealed the republican calendar, the last vestige of the republic; termed the 15th of August (his birthday) the *Festival of St. Napoléon*; appointed the cathedral of St. Denis [*San Dneé*] the place of Sepulchre for the emperors of the French; and converted the Panthéon into the church of Ste-Geneviève [*Zjen-vě-ave*]. It

was now that he sought to elevate his family, and fortify his throne by powerful vassals :

(1) His brother **Joseph** he created *King of the Two Sicilies*, and deposed the existing house of Naples for taking part in the late coalition.

(2) His brother **Louis** he created *King of Holland*, and erected the United Provinces into a kingdom for his dominion.

(3) **Murat**, his brother-in-law, he named *grand-duke of Cleves and Berg*.

(4) To **Eugene Beauharnais**, his step-son, viceroy of Italy, he gave in marriage a Bavarian princess :

(5) To his faithful ministers and generals he bestowed towns and provinces, which he made into grand *imperial Fiefs*.

(6) And lastly, he dissolved the ancient Germanic body, and united 14 princes of the south and west into what he termed the *Confederation of the Rhine*, of which he constituted himself "Protector." This obliged Francis II. to forego the title of emperor of *Germany* which had existed for 1000 years, and to assume that of "Francis I., emperor of Austria."

FOURTH COALITION. PRUSSIAN WAR AND CONTINENTAL SYSTEM.

Fourth Coalition (*November, 1806*). Frederick-William of Prussia, who for nine years had stood neuter, now viewed with just alarm the encroachments of France, and demanded that the French troops cantoned in Germany should be immediately withdrawn. This demand was construed by the emperor into an insult, and both parties prepared for war.

The young queen of Prussia rode about the city on horseback in military costume, to arouse the enthusiasm of the people ; and Napoléon wittily said of her, "She was Armida, in her distraction, setting fire to her own palace."

Pitt and Fox were both dead, but the new ministry readily entered into a new coalition with Prussia, Russia, and Sweden, against the disturber of the peace of Europe.

Battle of Jena (1806). Napoléon opened the campaign on the 28th September ; and, on the 14th of October, the fate of Prussia was decided by two great victories : one at Jena [*Ya-nah*] by the emperor, and the other at Auerstadt the same day by his lieutenant Davoust.

Lubeck was taken ; all the Prussian fortresses capitulated ; and, in a few days, this military monarchy was annihilated.

Napoléon visited Potsdam, the tomb of the Great Frederick, and carried away the sword of that hero, to deposit it in the *Hôtel-des-Invalides* of Paris.

He deposed the elector of Hessë; but raised Saxony into an independent kingdom.

This contest cost Prussia 140,000 men, all its standards, cannons, and baggage, and almost all her best generals, who were either slain or made prisoners.

England Denounced (21 Nov., 1806). DECREE OF BERLIN. Thus was Prussia trampled in the dust. But what of that, so long as “perfidious Albion” remained? England was the thorn in Napoléon’s side, and he could never be the arbiter of Europe, while England remained. What was to be done? “Commerce,” said he, “is the sinews of that nation of shopkeepers. Cut off her commerce, and the nation is destroyed.”

In order to carry out this Utopian idea, the Great Man devised his *Continental System*, inaugurated by the “Berlin Decree” of November 21st, which declared the British Isles in a state of siege, and prohibited all commerce and correspondence with them. Every Englishman found in a country occupied by France was declared a prisoner of war; all merchandize belonging to an Englishman, lawful prize; and all trade in British goods, unlawful. These orders were rendered still more oppressive by future decrees, especially by that of Fontainebleau, ordering all English goods, wherever found, to be burnt.

This violent interruption of human intercourse could not last long, and could only serve to strengthen the hatred of Europe against the tyrant who imposed it.

Campaign of Poland. Master of Prussia, Napoléon next resolved to make himself master of Poland; and this campaign was also successful.

Battle of Eylau (8 February, 1807). After various engagements, Napoléon encountered the combined Russian and Prussian armies on the plains of Eylau [*I-lou*], where was fought one of the bloodiest battles of the empire. A thick snow had covered the ground, and added considerably to the horrors of the day.

The murderous struggle was repeatedly renewed, and the promise of victory alternated now to one side and now to the other. Night closed upon the scene, while the allied line was driving the French before them; but Napoléon claimed the victory, because the allies retreated from the field on the night of the battle.

The allied army amounted to 58,000. The French to 80,000. The loss of the former was 20,000, that of the latter considerably greater.

Battle of Friedland (14 June, 1807). On the anniversary of the battle of Marengo, the “conqueror” of Eylau [*I-lou*] again encountered the Russians, and put them to flight at Friedland, where

10,000 were slain and 13,000 taken prisoners. This victory brought about the Treaty of Tilsit.

Treaty of Tilsit (7 July, 1807). Alexander of Russia expressed a desire to see his vanquisher, after the battle of Friedland; a conference took place; and a treaty of peace was signed at Tilsit by Russia, Prussia, and France:

(1) Prussia was made the scape-goat, and stripped of half her dominions to enrich the new kingdoms of Saxony and Westphalia.

(2) The latter (consisting of the south of Hanover, duchy of Brunswick, Hessë-Cassel, and the principality of Magdeberg) was conferred on Jerome, the youngest brother of the emperor.*

(3) The Confederation of the Rhine was extended to the Elbe.

(4) Russia, Denmark, and Prussia, consented to the "Continental System," and closed their ports to British commerce.

Invasion of Portugal (1807). Eleven months after the "Decree of Berlin," Portugal alone remained subject to the direct influence of England, and refused to accept the "Continental System."

Napoléon resolved to make her an example, and induced Spain to second him. Accordingly, on the 13th of December the two powers proclaimed the deposition of the House of Braganza, and placed 20,000 men under marshal Junot [*Zju-no*] to enforce their unrighteous sentence.

The prince-regent fled to Brazil, and Portugal was partitioned between the king of Etruria and a young libertine named Godoi, chief minister of Spain.

Invasion of Spain (1808). Godoi, the queen's favourite, was an object of extreme hatred to the Spaniards, and Ferdinand (the king's son) was idolized by them. Between these two young men a deadly feud existed, and both parties appealed to France.

Napoléon thought this a good opportunity of attaching Spain to his own empire, and sent thither 20,000 men under Murat [*Mu-rar*], as an army of occupation.

The poor old king and queen, thoroughly stupefied, embarked for America; but Ferdinand prevented their departure; forced his father to abdicate; arrested Godoi; and made his triumphal entrance into Madrid, on the 22nd March, 1808.

It was now that Murat interfered; entered the capital with his army; and declared that no one but Napoléon could settle so serious a dispute. The emperor was, accordingly, sent for; and invited Carlos and his son to meet him at Bayonne [*Ba-yonn*]. They readily obeyed the summons, and the wily Napoléon, having made himself

* In 1814 this kingdom was broken up, and the debris distributed between Hanover, Prussia, Brunswick, Hessë-Cassel, &c.

master of their persons, pronounced in favour of the king; and then persuaded the old man to resign the cares of royalty, and leave to him the choice of a successor.

This being agreed to, Napoléon placed his brother **Joseph** on the vacant throne, and made Murat [*Mu-rar*] king of Naples. As for the old dotard, he sent him to the château of Compiègne [*Cone-pe-enn*], but Ferdinand he confined in the castle of Valençay. A more deceitful pettifogging job than this never disgraced the hands of man; but with all his over-reaching the parvenu emperor “o’erleaped himself,” for Spain and Portugal were the theatres of his disgrace, and there began his decline and fall.

Revolt of Spain and Portugal (1808). The Spaniards, indignant at this disgraceful business, rose as one man, and annulled the acts of the junta at Bayonne [*Ba-yonn*]; and, on the 27th of May, called the *Day of St. Ferdinand*, a repetition of the “*Sicilian Vespers*” was enacted in Spain.

The garrison at Madrid was murdered without mercy; the French squadron at Cádiz was taken and cut to pieces, and war to the knife was declared against the perfidious tyrant, whose generals met with a series of disasters.

(1) On the 20th July, general Dupont [*Du-po’ng*] most shamefully capitulated at *Baylen*, in Cordöva.

(2) Seven days later, king Joseph was forced to quit the capital, only one week after his coronation.

(3) On the 14th of August, general Lefebvre [*Le-färre*] was obliged to raise the siege of Saragossa, which he had invested for a whole month. And the defence of this city is one of the most romantic events in history.

(4) Lastly, on the 21st of the same month, Arthur Wellesley, afterwards duke of Wellington, defeated Junot [*Zju-no*] at Vimiëra, but permitted him to evacuate the country with the honours of war.

Interview at Erfurt (27 September, 1808). Napoléon, resolved upon subduing Spain, strengthened his alliance with the czar; and, for this purpose, had a personal interview with him at Erfurt.

In this interview, Alexander undertook to reduce Sweden, which had recently declared against France; while Napoléon marched into Spain to repair the late calamities.

Napoléon consented to recognize Finland, which Alexander had taken from Sweden, and Moldavia and Walachia which he had taken from Turkey, as integral parts of the Russian empire; and Alexander, on his part, acknowledged Joseph Bonaparte as king of Spain, and promised to support Napoléon and his family against every hostile power.

A treaty of this sort ; drawn up without any consideration of justice or national rights, and founded solely on the ambition of the contracting parties, is at best but a rope of sand ; for as soon as a violation of it seems to either party the better policy, it will be broken. And so it was with the treaty of Erfurt.

Battle Corunna (16 January, 1809). Napoléon with his great captains crossed the Pyrenees. Soult triumphed on the 10th of November at *Bur'gos* ; the next day, Victor triumphed at *Espinosa*, and marshal Lannes at *Tudela* ; and on the 4th December, the French troops entered Madrid.

In the meantime, Sir John Moore had been dispatched by England to cover the capital. He landed in Portugal, and marched at once into Spain.

The Spanish government had appointed *Bur'gos* as the point of union for the British forces ; Madrid and Valladolid the places for magazines. Sir John was assured that 70,000 men were ready to join him on his march ; and that the French were scarcely able to maintain an inch of ground.

Every jot of this assurance was a falsehood. And when Sir John reached Salamanca, he learned that *Bur'gos* had already fallen, and that no troops could join him. What was to be done ? but one thing : to retrace his steps to Portugal, as best he could, while marshal Soult was sent "to drive him into the sea."

The situation of the British army at this crisis was most distressing : In the middle of winter ; in a mountainous, barren, and dreary country ; alternately drenched with rain and numbed with frost ; wearied by forced marches ; with scanty and irregular provisions, suspicious and indolent allies, brave and vigilant enemies, superior in numbers, and flushed with victory ; it is a marvel that this little band of fugitives was not utterly destroyed.

On the 8th of January, Sir John offered battle, which Soult declined, and during the night the British troops continued their retreat.

On the 11th, they reached Corunna. The French were 25,000 strong ; the English not above 15,000. On the 16th, it was needful to take up a position in order to secure the embarkation.

The struggle that now ensued was most obstinate ; the British, however, not only repelled every attempt of the enemy to gain ground, but actually forced them to retire ; and before six in the evening, Sir John was master of the field.

At ten o'clock at night, the troops quitted their positions ; and before daybreak were all embarked. The entire loss on our side in this well-sustained action did not exceed 800, while that of the enemy was 2000.

Sir John Moore, who lived only to ascertain that his army was victorious, was wounded early in the engagement by a spent ball, which had carried away part of his left shoulder and collar-bone.

"Are the French beaten?" he enquired at the close of the day; and being assured that they were, "I hope," said he, "my country will do me justice," and expired, terminating a career of distinguished honour by a hero's death.

FIFTH COALITION—AUSTRIAN WAR (1809).

The court of Vienna put the army upon the fullest war establishment, and appointed the archduke Karl commander-in-chief. Nearly 400,000 men were placed under arms, of which 180,000 were stationed in Germany under the archduke.

On the 10th of April Napoléon left Paris, and on the 17th took up his head quarters at Ingoldstadt, in Bavaria. Victory after victory crowned his arms; and on the 13th of May, he entered Vienna for the second time.

On the 19th April, he dislodged the Austrians from Abensburg.

On the 20th, he attacked and carried Landshut.

On the 22nd, he defeated the Austrians at Eckmühl, where 20,000 prisoners, all the Austrian artillery, and 15 standards, fell into the hands of the French.

On the 23rd, the Austrians were driven from Ratisbonne. It was in this assault that Napoléon received his first and only wound, a slight one in the heel.

The archduke, on hearing of the fall of Vienna, continued his route to **Essling**, whither Napoléon followed him, and drew up his army in array. A dreadful conflict commenced on the 21st of May, and was renewed on the 22nd.

The French were defeated with the loss of 30,000, and among the slain was the intrepid marshal Lannes [*Lann*]. This was the severest check that Napoléon had hitherto received; fortunately for him, however, his army was strengthened in a few days by reinforcements from Italy, and he resolved to venture another engagement.

Pretending to make preparations of battle on the former site, he completely deceived the foe; for, on the 4th of July, he marched six miles lower down; crossed the river; and drew up his order of battle near the village of **Wagram**.

This was a serious disadvantage to the archduke, as it compelled him to meet the adversary in a most unfavourable position, and rendered all his entrenchments of no avail.

At daybreak, on the 6th, the fight commenced, and by ten o'clock in the morning its issue was decided. The French were victorious; their loss did not exceed 5000 men; while that of the Austrians was at least 40,000, according to the French bulletins.

Marshal Berthier, who very greatly contributed to the victory, was created by Napoléon *prince of Wagram*.

The emperor of Austria now found it useless to continue the contest any longer. An armistice was proposed. And on the 14th October was signed the **Treaty of Vienna**, in which Francis I. agreed to recognize all the political changes enforced by Napoléon; to cede to him several provinces; to discard his English allies; and to observe faithfully the "Continental System," that pet folly of the French emperor.

Captivity of Pope Pius VII. (6 July, 1809). Pope Pius VII. had seconded the last coalition, and refused to close his ports against England. This he did, because Napoléon had taken from him a part of his territories, and persisted in retaining an army of occupation at Rome.

Napoléon, irritated at this resistance, dispossessed the pontiff of his temporal kingdom altogether; and allowed him, out of the proceeds, an annual stipend of £50,000.

His Holiness vehemently protested against this commutation; and solemnly excommunicated* the man he had consecrated at Paris in 1804.

This, of course, brought matters to a crisis. It now became a trial of strength between Napoléon and the pope. The time had gone by for excommunications to frighten kings and nations; and Napoléon of all men, was little likely to heed such empty threats. He simply ordered the old man to be arrested and brought to Paris.

The helpless churchman was taken captive in his palace on the very day of the battle of Wagram, and conducted first to Savona, and then to Fontainebleau, where he remained a prisoner for four years. Rome, in the mean time, was degraded into a mere departmental capital of the French empire.

In 1814 the pope returned to his estates, and had the generosity to afford an asylum in Rome to the family of his persecutor. He died 1823.

Hoffer Shot (20 February, 1810). At the peace of Presburg, the Tyrolese were transferred to the new kingdom of Bavaria. Under the House of Austria, they had enjoyed their native customs and privileges; so they hailed with enthusiasm the new rupture between their ancient masters and France.

Accustomed to arms from their infancy, they rose in 1809 as one man, and drove their oppressors from the country. A greater force, consisting of French, Bavarian, and Saxon troops, was then marched against them; but they defended themselves with such heroic courage and signal success, that their ranks were sought as a refuge by the partisans of Austria.

* Seven of the kings of France felt this ban of the church, Robert, Philippe I., Louis VII., Philippe II., Philippe IV., Henri III., and Napoléon I.

Being now formidable in numbers, they acted on the offensive; pushed into Bavaria; threatened Munich; took Kempton; and had actually advanced beyond Ulm, when they learnt that Francis I. had succumbed to Napoléon, and given up the Tyrol to his vengeance.

Still they refused to submit. Their leader was Andrew Hoffer, the Wallace of Switzerland; a man of gigantic stature and strength; brave as a lion, but gentle as a lamb; an enthusiastic patriot, idolized by his countrymen.

Returning to his mountain fastnesses, he drove the French and German armies sent against him out of the country; but fresh troops kept pouring in, and his little band was reduced to a mere handful.

Resistance was no longer courage; he dispersed his few adherents, and retired to a small cottage in the mountains. His retreat being discovered, he was taken prisoner by a party of French grenadiers, and carried to Mantua. Here he was mocked by a court-marshal, condemned to death, and shot. His countrymen mourned him as a martyr; Austria ennobled his son; and all Europe still honours him as a blameless patriot and true hero.

Second Marriage of Napoleon (2 April, 1810). Napoléon, decidedly the foremost man of all the world, now above 40 years of age, the emperor of half Europe, "the expectancy and rose" of France, had been married to Josephine for 13 years, but was without an heir to his enormous empire.

This was a great grief to him. He hoped to be the founder of a long line of kings; but began to fear his dynasty would begin and end with himself.

Under the hope of obtaining a posterity, he divorced his virtuous and loving wife, called his *Good Angel*; so amiable and gracious, so beloved and honoured, that he frequently said to her, "I can win battles, but you win hearts."

Joséphine, being informed of the mutual wish of her husband and the nation regarding a successor, nobly sacrificed her own private feelings and splendid position; and actually consented to the Emperor's marriage with **Maria Louisa** archduchess of Austria, the most ancient and illustrious house in Europe.

On the 20th March, 1811, Napoléon's joy was full; the climax of his wonderful destiny was attained; a son and heir was born. The infant from his cradle was proclaimed *King of Rome*. This was the "crest unto the crest" of all his hopes, but was almost the last of the brilliant gifts of fortune accorded to him. Already the storm was gathering in the West; and, in four more years, he was a disrowned exile in the desolate island of St. Helēna.

Josephine (1763—1814) was born at Martinique. Her maiden name was Rose Tascher de la Pagerie. She married, very young, the vicomte de Beauharnais, and had one son (Eugène), and one daughter (Hortense). The former married the princess of

Bavaria, and died in 1824; the latter married Louis-Bonaparte, and had three sons, of which the Emperor Napoléon III. was the youngest. Joséphine was 33 years old when she married Napoléon, who was six years her junior. After her divorce she retired to her beautiful seat of Malmaison [*Mal-may-zo'n*], with the title of *Empress-queen-dowager*, and devoted herself to botany. Napoléon's exile to Elba was a great grief to her, but she died before his final overthrow at Waterloo.

Holland joined to **France** (1810). Louis (Bonaparte) king of Holland, being more attentive to his subjects' interest than submissive to his imperial brother, allowed English merchants to enter his ports, conniving at this evasion of the "Berlin Decree."

Napoléon was very angry, and placed the ports of Holland under French custom-house officers; but Louis, rather than submit to this indignity, abdicated, and retired to Florence, under the title of *comte de St. Leu*. The kingdom of Holland was then wiped out of the map of Europe, and its territory (divided into nine departments) was incorporated with France.

The empire now extended over 130 departments; contained more than 50 millions of subjects, and a million of soldiers under arms. This was the grand climacteric of Napoléon's greatness; and from this point began his decline and fall.

Louis Bonaparte, comte de St. Leu, died at Florence in 1846.

THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN (1812, 1813).

At the Treaty of Tilsit, Alexander had agreed to adhere to the "Continental System," but found it so injurious and unpopular, that he was compelled to abandon it. Napoléon remonstrated, but in vain; and, after a year spent in negotiations, both emperors prepared for war.

On the 9th of May (1812) the emperor of the French left St. Cloud; on the 6th of June, crossed the Vistula; and on the 22nd, reached the banks of the Nieman, where he formally declared war with Russia.

The policy of Russia was to lead the enemy into the interior of the country, and, by laying everything waste, reduce them to a state of starvation. Anything like a general engagement was at first avoided; and though a bold resistance was made at every important point, the army kept continually retreating.

Battle Borodino (7 September, 1812). When they had reached the middle of the country, prince Kutusoff, who had the chief command, resolved to hazard an engagement, to save Moscow. Choosing, therefore, a strong position, he halted, and waited the arrival of the foe. The spot selected was the village of Borodino, 75 miles W.S.W. of the capital.

Napoleon might have reached the city without a battle, if he had chosen, but he accepted the challenge offered him. Each army

amounted to 120,000 men, but the position of the Russians was the stronger.

At daybreak, on the 7th of September, the fight began, and continued till night put an end to the carnage. It was one of the most obstinate battles in history; about 40,000 were slain on each side; and both parties claimed the victory, and offered up a solemn thanksgiving to God for the result; but neither achieved the object for which he fought: Kutusoff did not save Moscow, and Napoléon did not annihilate the foe.

The French call this the battle of *Moskwa*, from the river Moskwa, and it gave marshal Ney the title of *Prince of Moskwa*.

Burning of Moscow (14 September, 1812). The Russian field-marshal, at the conclusion of the battle, marched through Moscow, and took up his position on the opposite side.

Count Rostopchin, the governor, had for some time been removing the imperial treasures, records, and valuables, to a place of safety; and, on the 13th of September, gave the concerted signal for evacuating the city.

Next day, at noon, the French troops entered. Napoléon expected to be met by a deputation, but no deputation appeared; and, as he marched along, he found the streets deserted, and the houses closed and empty.

He took up his quarters in the Kremlin, the citadel of Moscow, which contained the ancient palace of the czars. But scarcely had he done so, when he observed the whole city in a blaze. It had been fired in 500 places at once, by order of the governor. The conflagration was frightful; and nearly 12,000 houses were burnt to the ground.

The French were obliged to decamp without delay, and removed to Petrovski, three miles off, where they remained for eight days, when they returned to the city. This was a very false move. Napoléon ought not to have lingered a single day in such a wilderness, but he fondly imagined that Alexander would make proposals.

Day followed day, and week was added to week, but no advances were made. Winter was drawing near; there was no time to be lost; and the haughty invader was obliged himself to send a flag of truce to the Russian count.

Kutusoff answered laconically, that "he could entertain no terms with an enemy, so long as he remained on Russian soil." A second application received the same reply. A third was then offered; but the field-marshal sent word back, "This is no time for negotiation. Napoléon vaunted that the campaign was over, when he entered Moscow; but Russia assures him, it will only be begun when he leaves that city."

Finding no alternative left him, the emperor of the French was obliged at length to order a retreat; but his delay of a month proved fatal to him: It gave the Russians time to complete their preparations; and their forces were closing in on every side to obstruct his movements, and prevent his escape.

Retreat from Moscow (*from 19th October, 1812, to 6 March, 1813*). Now commenced a scene of horror wholly without parallel. Famine, pestilence, and the sword, fatigue, accidents, and the severity of a Russian winter, all combined to plague the fugitives.

Napoléon began his retreat on the 19th of October. He was followed by Kutusoff in a parallel line of march; while the Cossacks hung upon his flanks and rear, to cut off stragglers, annoy those who threw themselves on the cold damp ground for a little rest, and attack the camp when it rested for the night.

Every bridge was broken down; every convoy intercepted; plunder was impossible; rest and repose were equally impossible; and, to add to these accumulated miseries, on the 7th of November, there fell a terrible snow-storm, accompanied with a cold biting wind, fierce as a tornado. The roads were no longer discernible; multitudes fell into ditches and died there; the horses perished "not only by hundreds but by thousands;" and no little of the artillery and baggage had to be left behind.

In less than a month, the 110,000 who started from Moscow were reduced to 30,000. With these Napoléon hastened to reach the Vistula; but on nearing the Berezy'na, found that the bridge had been destroyed.

By a dexterous manœuvre, he contrived to deceive the vigilance of the foe, and constructed two new bridges, one for the cavalry and one for the infantry. But now befell a calamity more like romance than history:

Napoléon himself passed on the 27th (Nov.), and took his route towards Zembin. On the 28th, a Russian army came up, and opened a most dreadful cannonade on those who were seeking to cross the bridges. Suddenly the bridge for the cavalry broke down, and the whole passage was blocked up by horses, baggage-waggons, carriages, and artillery, advancing with all speed towards its foot.

On rushed the troops to the other bridge. On followed the cavalry, artillery, and baggage waggons, in inextricable confusion. The strong thrust the weak aside into the river, or trampled them under their feet. Hundreds were crushed to death. An army of Russians was close behind, and was already in sight, when one of the French generals who had crossed over ordered the bridge to be fired.

Horrible beyond description was the scene which now ensued. The mass on the bridge was so wedged in, it could not move. It saw the

double death ; and, shrieking, struggling, cursing, and imploring, sank with a tremendous crash into the river below.

Those who escaped, regardless of discipline and authority, ran forward in the hope of escaping death ; and the retreat became no better than a disastrous rout.

On the 5th of December, Napoléon set out *incognito* on a sledge for Paris, where he arrived at midnight on the 18th. He left Murat, king of Naples, to supply his place ; but Murat, on the 16th of January, followed the example of his imperial brother-in-law, and abandoned his post to Eugène Beauharnais ; and it was not till the 9th of March, 1813, that the small remnant of this splendid army reached Magdeburg.

The loss of the French, in this deplorable campaign, may be estimated at 400,000 men ; that of the Russians at not much less than half. If to these two be added the women and children, citizens, villagers, and rustics who perished from hunger, terror, pestilence, and all the thousand ills that accompany conflagration, devastation, and the lawlessness of war, the number cannot fall short of the frightful aggregate of a **million**. A million of human beings immolated within six months to the insane ambition of one man ! It was full time for him to lose the prestige of his name ! It was full time for him to understand that "the stars in their courses fought against Sisëra."

Malet shot (29th December, 1812). While Napoléon was on his return, Claude-François de Malet, a general of brigade, imprisoned in 1808 for "dangerous political opinions," made his escape, and spread the report that the emperor was dead. He even showed dispatches in corroboration of this statement. His object was to overthrow the empire and restore the republic ; but the return of Napoléon on the 18th of December exposed this fabrication, and Malet with his accomplices was shot.

PENINSULAR WAR (1809—1813).

We must now go back in our history to the Peninsular War, which was contemporary with the struggle between France and Austria, and France and Russia.

It has been already stated that Napoléon seized upon the peninsula, and placed his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain. That England interfered ; sent Sir Arthur Wellesley to aid the oppressed ; and that Sir Arthur, having gained the battle of Vimiëra, returned to London.

At the beginning of 1809, Napoléon with his great captains crossed the Pyrenees, and gained several victories. The English were driven back ; Sir John Moore lost his life at Corunna ; and the whole of Spain was again in the hands of the French.

Napoléon, after crowning his brother at Madrid, quitted Spain for the Austrian expedition, and left his generals to complete the subjugation of the peninsula ; but his marshals, instead of acting in concert,

followed each his own devices, under the hope of reaping personal honour.

It was at this crisis ; that the British cabinet persuaded the provisional administration of Spain to commit the conduct of the war to England ; and Sir Arthur Wellesley, with 20,000 British troops, was despatched again to their assistance.

Battle of Douro (*Soult defeated, 12th May, 1809*). Sir Arthur set sail from Portsmouth on the 15th of April, and arrived at Lisbon in seven days. He was joined by 15,000 Portuguese under General Beresford, and advanced towards the *Douro* to dislodge Soult from Oporto.

On the 12th of May, he reached the southern bank ; the waters, 900 feet wide, rolled between him and his adversary. Soult, who had destroyed the floating bridge, and collected all the boats on the opposite side, was looking from the window of his lodging to enjoy the presumed discomfiture of the foe.

It was a critical moment. Sir Arthur succeeded in transporting part of his army to the northern bank, when the alarm was given. His passage was disputed, but the British held their ground. The French retreated ; Oporto was recovered ; and Sir Arthur sat down to the very dinner, which had been prepared for the French marshal.

For this exploit he was created *Baron Douro*.

Talavera (*Victor defeated, 28th July, 1809*). The advance of marshal Victor recalled Sir Arthur to the protection of Lisbon ; and, having effected a junction with a Spanish army, he took up his position at *Talavëra*, at the head of 64,000 men, to await the French army.

On the 28th of July, was fought one of the most transcendent battles of modern times. Joseph Bonaparte, supported by Victor and Jourdan, directed the attack, but was foiled at every point. Sir Arthur maintained his position, and the French were defeated.

This was the first *pitched battle* between the English and French in the peninsula. Sir Arthur estimated the loss of the foe at 10,000, and his own at 6000 men. He was created for this exploit a peer of the realm, under the title of *Viscount Wellington of Talavëra*.

Between this and the next engagement, the divorce and second marriage of Napoléon took place.

Busaco (*Masséna foiled, 27th September, 1810*). The defeat at *Talavëra* acted on Napoléon, as that at *Vimiëra* had done eleven months before. His best soldiers had failed against the island general. He became alarmed for his conquest ; and poured into Spain nine powerful corps, amounting in all to 280,000 fighting men ; over whom he appointed his best marshals, such as Victor, Ney, Soult, Junot, Mortier, and Masséna.

Of these, Masséna was called "the favoured child of Victory." His whole career had been a succession of successes, in Italy, Switzerland, Germany, and Poland. In him Napoléon placed unbounded confidence, and bade him go forth and "sweep the English leopard into the sea."

After the battle of Talavéra, lord Wellington gave up Spain for a time, and turned his attention to the defence of Portugal. In order to ensure this, it was necessary to select and fortify some situation to which an inferior force might retire and bid defiance to superior numbers, or at the worst secure an open retreat by sea.

Torres Vedras promised both these advantages: It was near the Tagus; was capable of being rendered impregnable on the land side; and presented facilities for communication with England.

While he was constructing these lines from the Atlantic to the Tagus, Masséna entered Portugal at the head of 65,000 men. Wellington, who had only 40,000, slowly retreated to *Busac'o*, where he halted.

On the 26th of September, the light troops of the opponents met, and skirmished along the front of the whole line. Next morning, at six o'clock, two attacks were made, one on the right and the other on the left of the Anglo-Portuguese army, in both of which the enemy was repulsed.

Wellington now retired behind the lines of Torres-Vedras, according to his original intention; and when Masséna came up, and saw how impossible it would be to force them, he sat down before them for a month, watching for some inadvertency; but none occurred; and he was constrained, for want of provisions, to retreat.

He was now followed by Wellington, who hoped in turn to discover a false move; but finding none, retraced his steps, and fixed his headquarters at Cartaxo till the close of the year.

Combât of Fuentes D'Onoro (*Masséna repulsed, 5th May, 1811*). After the retreat of Masséna, Almeïda was the only strong place in all Portugal remaining in the hands of the French.

In the following spring, Wellington resolved to attempt its recovery; but Masséna, equally anxious to retain it, went forth with his whole force to encounter him.

Lord Wellington halted, in order of battle, near the little village of *Fuëntès D'Onôro*, and was driven from his post. The next day was spent in manœuvring; but on the 5th, the village, after being lost and won several times, ultimately remained in the hands of the British.

Next morning, the French began to retreat; Almeïda was evacuated; and Masséna, returning to France, was succeeded in command by marshal Marmont.

Now commence the famous sieges of the peninsula, which reflect such honour on the "Iron Duke."

Albuera (16th May, 1811). During the absence of Wellington, marshal Soult came up against general Beresford, who had been left to carry on the siege of Bad'ajoz; and, on the 16th of May, the British general had the honour of winning the battle of *Albuera*, one of the most brilliant victories of the whole war.

When Wellington returned, he determined to relinquish for the present the siege of Bad'ajoz, and to carry by storm the fortified city of Ciudad-Rodrigo, which Marmont, at the head of 60,000 men, was hastening to relieve.

Siege of Ciudad-Rodrigo (19th January, 1812). Ciudad-Rodrigo [*The'-û-dat Rod-ré-go*], the key of Spain on the west, was built on the river Aguêda, a branch of the Douro, as a rampart against Portugal. It is a few miles to the S.E. of Almêida, and was taken by the French in 1810.

Wellington, having prepared everything in secret, stole upon the city unawares, and carried it by storm in 10 days. It was a masterly achievement, accomplished at every disadvantage by consummate skill and British daring.

Marmont was thunderstruck. The place had fallen before he had time to reach it, and nothing was now left him but to fall back as fast as possible.

Lord Wellington was now created an *Earl*.

Siege of Badajoz (7th April, 1812). As Ciudad-Rodrigo was the key of Spain towards the north of its western boundary, Bad'ajoz [*Bad-ă-choz'*] commanded it on the south. Both forts were built by the Spaniards as barrier fortresses; and both were equally important, as they kept the way into Spain entirely open. The latter had been held by the French since the 10th of March, 1811.

As soon as Wellington had put the more northern fortress into repair, he marched southward to push on the siege of Bad'ajoz [*Bad-ă-choz'*]. It was invested on the 18th of March, and carried by storm on the 7th of April.

Soult and Marmont were both advancing to its relief; but, on hearing it had fallen, retired, the former to Seville, and the latter to Salamanca.

To prevent their juncture, Wellington dispatched general Hill to destroy the bridge of Almaraz [*Al-mă-rath'*], which crossed the Tagus. The French, sensible of its importance, had strongly fortified it; but Hill ordered an assault, and the fortifications were carried at the point of the bayonet.

Salamanca (*Marmont defeated, 22nd July, 1812*). From Bad'ajoz [*Bad-ă-choz'*] lord Wellington followed Marmont to Salamanca, which was evacuated without resistance; but, after reinforcing

his army, Marmont returned to the neighbourhood, and hovered about to pounce on the enemy, if they gave him an opportunity of so doing.

On the 22nd of July, both armies confronted each other in the outskirts of the city. The battle that ensued was a trial of strategy, in which Marmont was completely out-generalled, and took refuge with the remnant of his army in the city of Valladolid.

This victory, the most decisive which had been fought, cost the French 13,000 men, of whom 700 were prisoners; 11 pieces of artillery, 2 eagles, and 6 standards. King Joseph immediately evacuated Madrid, which the British entered on the 12th of August, and there took 2500 more prisoners, with an immense quantity of military stores.

Wellington was now created a *Marquis*. He had defeated seven of Napoléon's best marshals in four years.

N.B. Between this battle and that of Vittoria occurred the disastrous Russian campaign.

Vittoria (21st June, 1813). In the autumn of 1812, Wellington, who was now a marquis, attempted the siege of Bur'gos; but, after consuming five weeks before its walls, reluctantly raised the siege, and went to Portugal for the winter.

In the ensuing spring, he bade farewell to Portugal, and returned to Spain, to encounter king Joseph and marshal Jourdan at the head of 200,000 men, a strength far exceeding that of his own army.

King Joseph, driven from place to place by the British, at length took up his post at Vittoria; but suffered there the most conclusive defeat ever sustained by the French arms since the battle of Blenheim [*Blen'-um*].

His whole army was routed. 151 pieces of cannon; 451 waggons of ammunition; all the baggage, provisions, cattle, and treasures; the *bâton* of marshal Jourdan; and the travelling carriage of king Joseph, fell into the hands of the British general.

Continuing the pursuit, Wellington drove the fugitives to the recesses of the Pyrenees, and took their one remaining gun. This was a triumph indeed. And it was for this great victory that the "Sepoy General" was created a *Duke*, being the only commander in English history, except Marlborough, who attained to that high honour.

The battle of Vittoria was the last of Wellington's victories in the peninsula. The remains of the French army were vigorously followed; and all the fortresses which they still held, such as Pampluna, Toloso, and St. Sebastian (in the vicinity of the Pyrenees), were taken from them.

The French had now been driven out of Portugal and out of Spain, into their own country. On the 9th of November, the duke slept for the last time on Spanish ground; and thus terminated, with unexampled glory, the great peninsular war.

SIXTH COALITION, EMANCIPATION WAR OF GERMANY (1813, 1814).

The Russian campaign and peninsular war produced a great reaction in Germany. Prussia first fell from France; Austria soon followed; and both entered into alliances with Russia.

In the meantime, Napoléon obtained from the senate a new levy of 350,000 men, and marched with his usual speed to Saxony, where, on the 2nd of May, he drove the allies out of **Lutzen**; on the 21st, gained the barren victory of **Bautzen**; and ten days afterwards, obtained possession of **Breslau**, in Silesia.

Austria now proposed to mediate between the combatants, and a congress was opened at Prague on the 4th of June, when an armistice for two months was agreed upon.

At the end of July, the terms proposed as the bases of a treaty were, that Napoléon should abolish the confederation of the Rhine; and circumscribe the empire of France by the Alps, the Rhine, and the Meuse. These terms he indignantly rejected, and Austria declared war against him.

The natural result of this declaration was a *sixth coalition*. It was formed of England, Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Sweden. Its sole object was the humiliation of France; all other matters being wisely postponed for a future convocation.

Battle of Leipsic (18th October, 1813). After two or three combats, in some of which the French were victorious and in others the allies, the belligerents met under the walls of *Leipsic*; and here was fought one of the greatest, most sanguinary, and most decisive battles of modern times. The French, commanded by Napoléon, numbered 160,000 men; the allied Russian, Austrian, and Prussian armies, 240,000.

During the action, 12,000 Saxons in Napoléon's army deserted. This determined the fate of the field. Napoléon ordered a retreat, which was to be effected over the bridge of the river Elster.

Under this bridge the French engineers had formed a mine to prevent pursuit; but the mine exploded, while the whole rear of the army was still on the Leipsic side of the river. A cry of dismay arose; many were precipitated into the river; many killed by the explosion; and the rest were taken prisoners.

Next day, the allied monarchs made their solemn entry into Leipsic; and congratulated each other in the great square of the city on the deliverance of Germany, and the dissolution of the Rhenish confederation.

The spoils of this battle were enormous: 15,000 prisoners, 250 pieces of cannon, 900 caissons, besides several eagles and colours. Of the 160,000 brought into the field, not 80,000 escaped with their commander.

The Allies enter Paris (31st March, 1814). On returning to Paris, after this battle, Napoléon demanded another army; and the senate, always docile, accorded him a levy, amounting to 300,000 men; but the legislative body ventured for the first time to resist, and even to pass a vote of censure on his conduct.

Napoleon was furious; pronounced its instant dissolution; and prepared himself for one last effort.

Confiding his wife, Marie-Louise, whom he had appointed regent, to the care of the national guard, and leaving his brother Joseph in charge of the capital, he entered upon his last campaign.

All the frontiers of his empire had been snatched from his grasp. The English, under Wellington, had advanced to the south of the Pyrenees; 150,000 Austrians and Russians, under Schwartzberg, were debouching into France by Switzerland; 130,000 Prussians, under Blücher, were marching from Frankfort; and 100,000 Swedes and Germans, under Bernadotte [*Bair-nä-dott*], had penetrated into Belgium.

Such was the desperate aspect of affairs at the beginning of 1814. The emperor, in this terrible crisis, dispatched Augereau [*O-zjě-ro*] into Lyons, to arrest the march of the Austrians; Eugène, to defend Italy; Soult to the Pyrenees, to oppose the British; while he himself marched against Blücher and Schwartzberg.

The Austrians were successful against Augereau [*O-zjě-ro*], and succeeded in occupying Lyons. Murat [*Mu-rar*], king of Italy, so far from co-operating with Eugène, forsook the fortunes of his imperial brother-in-law, concluded peace with Austria, and made common cause with the allies. And Soult was utterly crushed by the British army, which entered **Toulouse** in triumph, where the mayor proclaimed Louis XVIII. king. In all points the allies were victorious, except against the emperor himself, who defeated both Blücher and Schwartzberg. But his victories were of no avail, for the allies succeeded in effecting a junction, and marched direct to Paris.

This was the first time for nearly two centuries that Paris had been threatened by invasion. Marie-Louise, the regent, instantly retired to Blois [*Blwor*]; Joseph capitulated; the allies were admitted into the city; and Talleyrand, in the name of the senate, declared Napoléon deposed; the nation absolved from its oath of allegiance to him; and the hereditary right of his family abolished.

Abdication of Napoleon (11 April, 1814). In the mean time, Napoléon turned aside to Fontainebleau, and sent a deputation to Paris to request that he might be allowed to abdicate in favour of his son. To this the allies objected, and resolved that the Bourbon dynasty should be restored.

At the breaking up of the conference, the deputation returned to Fontainebleau. And, when the emperor demanded with great eagerness whether they had succeeded, marshal Ney replied, "In part, Sire; but not with regard to the regency."

He then proceeded to state that the personal safety of the emperor and his family had been conceded; that he was to retire, as a sovereign, to the little Island of Elba in the Mediterranean sea; and that a stipend of £80,000 a year was to be allowed him for his personal expenditure.

There was no alternative; he signed the deed of abdication on the 6th of April; renounced the thrones of France and Italy for himself and his heirs; and, on the 20th of the same month, started from Fontainebleau for his island home.

Thus fell this colossus of power, after having governed France for 14 years. Never to any man was it given to achieve to more brilliant success; and no one ever so deeply shook the nations of Europe. He is now fallen; but his career is not ended. The giant will rise again in less than 12 months, "for he ween'd, by fight or by surprise, to win the height of his aspiring."

The empress did not accompany her husband to Elba, but with her son returned to Austria, and put herself under the protection of her father.

RESTORATION.

LOUIS XVIII. (*Le Désiré*).

REIGNED 10 YEARS. FROM 1814 TO 1824. *Contemporary with George III. and George IV.*

Kingdom. In 1815, the 130 departments of France were reduced to 86. The Austrian Netherlands, Holland, Parma, Tuscany, Switzerland, Nice, Piedmont, and the Ionian Isles, added to the empire by Napoléon, were taken away again.

Married Maria-Josepha of Savoy, who died without issue at Hartwell, in England, 1810.

Residence. The Tuileries.

History. *Mémoires de Louis XVIII.*, by Lamothe-Langon.

INTRODUCTION.

Louis-Stanislas-Xavier, second son of Louis the Dauphin, and brother of Louis XVI., bore the title of *comte de Provence*. At the breaking out of the Revolution, he very unwisely set himself in opposition to his brother, both in the Assembly of Notables and in the States-General. He voted that the members of the *Tiers-état* should equal the aggregate number of the two other estates. On the 20th of June, 1791, he quitted France, a few minutes after his brother started for Montmédy. More lucky than the king, he succeeded in reaching Brussels. Next year (1792), he put himself at the head of 6000 men, joined the Prussian army, and marched upon France; but the defeat of Valmy blighted his hopes.

On the death of his nephew, Louis XVII. (June 8th, 1795), he assumed the title of *Louis XVIII.*, and was recognized by foreign powers as the lawful king of France.

When the army of Condé was repulsed by Moreau, Louis XVIII. retired, first to Blankenbourg, then to Milan, and in 1807, to England, where he was well received; Hartwell, a seat of the duke of Buckingham, being assigned to him as a residence. There he lived, under the name of the *comte Delille*, till the fall of Napoléon, in 1814.

Entry of Louis XVIII. into Paris (3 May, 1814). Napoléon being deposed and the empire abolished, the senate invited the

brother of Louis XVI. to accept the throne of France, under the name and title of Louis XVIII.

The comte d'Artois (afterwards Charles X.), his younger brother, proceeded to Paris, on the 12th of April, as Lieutenant General of the kingdom. Louis XVIII. quitted Hartwell on the 24th of the same month; and, on the 3rd of May, made his solemn entry into Paris, with his niece the duchess of Angoulême, the only surviving child of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette.

The comte d'Artois substituted the *white* cockade and flag (the *Bourbon* livery) for the tricolour.

Peace of Paris (1814). On the 30th May, the new king, with the allied powers, signed the *Peace of Paris*, by which France returned to its ancient limits, with the exception of Avignon, the Comtat-Venaissin, Mulhouse, and a very small part of Savoy. Malta was confirmed to England, and three French colonies (the Mauritius, St. Lucia, and Tobâgo) were added to our dominions. The French troops were recalled from 53 garrisons; and the fortresses restored to the allies.

Impolitic conduct of Louis XVIII. Louis thus found himself reinstated on the throne of his ancestors without any effort of his own. His situation, without doubt, was difficult, but might have been easily rendered secure by prudence and liberal conduct; but unfortunately, the Bourbons are not taught wisdom even in the school of adversity.

The very first acts of Louis XVIII. betrayed his arbitrary principles: He rejected the constitution framed by the Senate, and promulgated another by his own authority, far less liberal; he dated the year of his accession as the *nineteenth of his reign*, thus ignoring the empire and all its political acts; he selected his ministers chiefly from emigrants, whose monarchical prejudices were well known; and he subjected the press to a rigorous censorship, alledging as a reason that the French people were not to be trusted with liberty of speech.

The Constitutional Charter (1814). On the 4th of June, he gave to France the "Constitutional Charter," which established a Representative Government composed of two houses, one of hereditary peers, and the other of elective deputies; but he restricted the franchise to persons above 30 years of age, who paid at least £12 annually of direct taxes.

By these restrictions, he disfranchised more than 3½ millions of his subjects, and limited the right of voting to about 110,000 persons. He provided that 40 should be the minimum age of every deputy, in order that the selection might fall on persons born before the revolution. In a word, he made himself the patron of the emigrants and royalists, to the prejudice of the army and the people.

Congress of Vienna (2 October, 1814 to 23 March, 1815.) In the mean time a congress of sovereigns met at Vienna to distribute the spoils of the French empire. England was represented by Lord Castlereagh, Russia by the Czar Alexander, Austria by prince Metternich, Prussia by Baron Hardenberg, and France by prince Talleyrand.

By this Congress, the Cape of Good Hope, the Mauritius, Malta, and Corfu, were assigned to England; Finland and Poland to Russia; Lombardy and the Venetian States to Austria; Saxony, Franconia, and Swedish Pomerania to Prussia; Tuscany to the archduke Ferdinand; Genoa to the king of Sardinia; Parma and Placentia to Marie Louise the wife of Napoléon; Norway to Sweden; and the two Sicilies to Ferdinand IV. of the Bourbon dynasty.

Such was the situation of Europe in the Spring of the year 1815, when an event occurred which seized every one with astonishment.

THE HUNDRED DAYS.

FROM 20TH MARCH TO 22ND JUNE, 1815.

Napoleon quits Elba. Napoléon acquainted with all the events of Europe, and apprised of the military discontent of France, quitted his island kingdom in the Spring of 1815, and returned to France as a conspirator.

He landed at Cannes [*Kan*], near Antibes [*An-teeb*], on the 1st of March, where a thousand soldiers joined him; marched to Grenoble; and then to Lyons, where the gates were thrown open to welcome him. The comte d'Artois was sent to the latter city to arrest him; but, abandoned by his troops, fled with a single horseman. Everywhere the soldiers received their old commander with open arms; and Napoléon marched to Paris in triumph.

Louis XVIII. quitted the Tuileries on the 19th of March, and repaired first to Lille and then to Ghent [*Gah'ng*]; and, on the evening of the next day, the exile, without having fired a single musket, entered the capital, in triumph, and took up his abode in his old quarters.

It was a wonderful revulsion, which looked like a triumph. But never emperor found himself in a more perilous position. The congress of Vienna, instantly issued a proclamation, placing him "without the pale of civil and social relations."

The **Champ-de-Mai** (1 June, 1815). Sensible of the difficulties of his situation, Napoléon endeavoured to unite the army and the people in his cause: The censorship of the press was removed; the franchise was extended; the two chambers were dissolved; the ancient nobility was abolished; the Bourbon property sequestrated; and Talleyrand, Marmont, and nine others, were proscribed.

The new measures, which reproduced the chief items of the charter, were added to the Imperial Constitution as a codicil, and styled the *Supplementary Act*, a term which gave great offence, as it made the liberty of the people a subordinate matter. However, it was submitted to, and received a million of approving voices.

On the 1st of June (1815), Napoléon convoked to the Champ-de-Mars an Extraordinary Assembly, consisting of deputations from the Electoral Colleges. Clovis and his successors had occasionally summoned together their great feudatories, to advise with them in times of imminent danger, and had called their conference a *Champ-de-Mai*, a term revived by the first emperor.

To this assembly went Napoléon, with all pomp and circumstance, to swear to the New Constitution. He was attended by a most magnificent staff of officers. The *fleurs-de-lis* were replaced by the Imperial Eagles, and the Bourbon *white* by the tricolour.

The last mention of a Champ-de-Mai is in the reign of Charles-the-Bald, in the middle of the ninth century.

Champ-de-Mars and de Mai *pronounce* Sharnd-Mars and May.

Battle of Ligny (16 June, 1815). In the mean time, a combined English and Prussian army was quartered in the neighbourhood of Brussels and Charleroy, under the command of Wellington and Blücher.

Immediately after the Champ-de-Mai, Napoléon put himself at the head of 150,000 choice troops, and on the 14th of June, with his characteristic promptitude, commenced operations on the Flemish frontiers.

His intention was to meet his two great antagonists separately; to cut them off in detail; and then to turn suddenly upon the Austrians and Russians, and exterminate them in the same manner.

Blücher he encountered at Ligny on the 16th, and discomfited him. The result, however, was not sufficiently grave, to prevent the Prussians from arriving on the field of Waterloo in the evening of that great engagement, which occurred two days afterwards.

Battle of Quatre-Bras (16 June, 1815). While Napoléon went against Blücher, he directed marshal Ney to march upon Brussels, and drive the allies from Quatre-Bras.

This was a most important position, and absolutely essential for the safety of the allies. It was here that two main roads intersected each other. By the one, they could communicate with Brussels; by the other, with the Prussians.

After much skirmishing, about three in the afternoon, the French made a vigorous attack upon the place, which was resolutely defended by the Belgians, under the prince of Orange. The Belgians, however, were driven back, and the prince was taken prisoner.

At this moment, the British Division of Picton, and the Brunswickers under the duke of Brunswick, entered into action. General Picton formed, and fought near the farm-house of Quatre-Bras. The French had possession of the rising ground, and the British were sunk to their shoulders in tall rye. In this situation, the enemy's cavalry charged upon them. The 42nd and 92nd Highlanders were cut to pieces; but the rest of the division resisted till the enemy gave up charging.

The young duke of Brunswick, at the head of his Black Brunswickers, (so called because they wore mourning for the duke's father,) met the onset of the enemy, but fell by a musket-ball. His soldiers, however, avenged his death; and, at the close of the day, the French marshal was obliged to withdraw his troops, and give up the point he had so bravely contested.

Quatre-bras (*four-arms*), the point where four roads meet, viz., the high road from Charleroy to Brussels, and that from Nivelles to Namur.

Battle of Waterloo (18 June, 1815). Napoléon, triumphant at Ligny, went at the head of 70,000 men to meet the English, Dutch, and Hanoverian forces, under Wellington. The allies were a motley group, of which only 33,000 were British. Such as they were, however, the duke drew them up near Waterloo, and awaited the impetuous onset of the magnificent French army, led by their favourite commander.

Never was battle more momentous. The fate of Napoléon, the fate of England, the fate of Europe, hung upon the issue of the field.

On the 18th of June, at ten in the morning, the action began. It was a desperate affair. Napoléon thought to overwhelm the foe before Blücher arrived with reinforcements; but the iron duke was of unyielding stuff, and stood his ground with indomitable obstinacy till six in the evening.

A body of troops now appeared in the distance. Who were they? Were they about to throw the poise into the British balance or into the scale of France? Both armies were on the tip-toe of expectation. Napoléon hoped it was Grouchy; Wellington that it was Blücher.

It was the latter. The duke was sure of victory. Another charge and all was over. A total rout ensued. And Blücher was only just in time to join in the pursuit. The victory was complete; the carnage horrible; 200 pieces of artillery and spoil of immense value fell into the hands of the allies. This was the most glorious victory ever won by British arms, and the most happy in its consequences. It was won over the greatest captain of the world and the finest troops, by sheer fighting, not by strategy, manœuvre, or accident; and it settled the state of Europe.*

* This was the second battle won by the English at Waterloo. The first was won by the Duke of Marlborough on the 17th of August, 1705.

Napoleon was frantic. His honour, his crown, his hope, his all, were cast upon that one stake, and all were lost, lost beyond hope, lost without the power of redemption.

When he saw the resistance of the British, he took snuff by handfuls; and, as the guards started up at the command of Wellington, he said to one of his officers, "Let us be off, it is all over."

To Paris he fled, leaving his army, as he did in Russia. He demanded of the senate another army, but the chamber would not listen to him; and, on the 22nd of June, he again abdicated. Thus ended the "Hundred Days" of the 2nd reign of Napoléon, and thus fell the new Sesostris, "whose game was empire, and whose stakes were thrones!"

The three points of greatest interest in this memorable battle are *Mont-St.-Jean*, the farm called *La-Haye-Sainte*, and the château called *Hugoumont* with its outbuildings and grounds. (In this battle 60,000 were slain, of which 5 to 3 were French.)

In order to understand their relative positions, you must know that a high road runs from Brussels to Mont-St.-Jean, through the forest of Soignies* and the village of Waterloo. At Mont-St.-Jean, the main road, which leads to Genappe and thence to Charleroy, forks into a second road leading to Nivelles, and thence to Mons. *La-Haye-Sainte* stood a little way down the main road; and *Hugoumont*, or rather the château de Goumont, about the same distance down the Mons road. The three formed a triangle, having Mont-St.-Jean at the apex.

All these places were in the occupation of the allies. *La-Haye-Sainte* was held by the Hanoverian sharpshooters; *Hugoumont* by Dutch sharpshooters and some British troops; *Mont-St.-Jean* by Wellington himself.

The French were drawn up at the base of the triangle, about 1200 yards from Wellington's position, and a little below *La-Haye-Sainte* and *Hugoumont*. Their object was first to gain possession of the two farms, and then to drive Wellington from *Mont-St.-Jean*. But they failed in all.

Attack on Hugoumont. At ten o'clock in the morning, the French began the battle by an attack on *Hugoumont*. The château and its outbuildings caught fire; but the allies deserted not their post, which remained in their possession till the close of the day. As many as 3000 men fell in *Hugoumont* alone.

Attack on La-Haye-Sainte. Having failed in this attempt, they next made a furious attack on the Hanoverians, sent to defend *La-Haye-Sainte*. In this they succeeded; and Napoléon, deeming the day his own, sent dispatches to Paris to announce his victory. But scarcely had the couriers set spur to their horses, when the Life-Guards, Oxford-Blues, and Scotch-Greys, poured down upon the French, drove them back again, and were never dislodged.

Attack on Mont-Saint-Jean. The last attack was on *Mont-St.-Jean*. Napoléon marching through the corn-fields, succeeded in reaching the apex of the triangle; and said to his soldiers, "There, gentlemen, that is the road to Brussels." On they rushed with the utmost impetuosity, carrying all before them. They had almost reached the summit of the hill, when Wellington exclaimed to a regiment squatting on the ground to avoid the enemy's fire, "Up, Guards, and at them!" To their feet they started in a moment, and poured such a volley on the advancing foe, that they staggered and retreated. On rushed the British with a cheer. Down ran the French in dismay. A moment before Napoléon had pronounced the victory his own; now he declared it

* The letter A will do very well for a map of this battle: *Mont-St.-Jean*, where Wellington is, stands at the top; *La-Haye-Sainte*, where the "string" meets the thick stroke; *La-Belle-Alliance*, where Napoleon is posted, just below; and *Hugoumont*, the position of Jerome Bonaparte, where the string meets the thin stroke. *Genappe* is at the foot of the thick stroke, and *Nivelles* at the foot of the thin one. *Charleroy* is a long way down, under *Genappe*, or the thick stroke; and *Mons* is on the opposite side, under *Nivelles*. In order to complete the map, imagine the thick stroke to be carried up beyond the apex of the letter, to represent the road to *Brussels*, passing through *Waterloo* and the forest of *Soignies* [*Swoin-yea*]. The centre of the string is the exact spot where the battle was concluded, and here the "Lion" stands to commemorate the heroism of the old Guards.

was all over, and fled. Blücher coming up at this moment, not only aided in the pursuit, but effectually prevented the enemy from rallying again.

From ten in the morning till 6 at night the allies had been acting on the defensive only. They had often shewn impatience, and wanted to attack, but the cautious duke had always replied, "Not yet, be firm a little longer!" When, however, the division under Ney began to flee from the hill, *Forward!* was the word given by the duke, and forward rushed his legions pell-mell. The French were panic-struck; the victory was complete; the rout a confused flight, and *Suave qui peut* the only order obeyed.

Napoleon Banished to St. Helena (18 October, 1815). On the 29th of June Napoléon set out for Rocheford, intending to seek refuge in America. He embarked, on the 3rd of July, on board a small frigate; but an English ship of superior force, named the *Bellerophon*, was in sight, and escape impossible.

Under these circumstances he thought it better to surrender. Captain Maitland received him with all honours; sailed at once for England; and arrived at Torbay on the 25th.

After various discussions as to the manner in which he should be treated, it was finally determined to send him to the island of St. Helena, where his person would be in safe custody, and his domestic comforts as little restrained as possible.

Accordingly, on the 18th October, an expedition conducted him thither; a place called "Longwood" was fitted up for his reception; and here he resided for six years.

On the 5th of May, 1821, he died, and was buried at Longwood; but in 1840, with the consent of the English government, a small French squadron, commanded by prince de Joinville, brought his remains to France.

They were first landed at le Havre, and received with the greatest veneration; afterwards, they were taken to Paris; and interred, on the 18th December, in the *Hôtel des Invalides*. A magnificent mausoleum was raised over them by his nephew Napoleon III. under the dome of that noble edifice.

Napoleon Bonaparte (born 15th August, 1769, died 5th May, 1821) was born at Ajaccio, in the island of Corsica. He was the second of eight children* of Carlo Buonaparte a lawyer, by Letitia Ramolini his wife, a lady of great personal and mental attractions.

He was placed early, by the governor of Corsica, at the military school at Brienne (in Champagne), whence he was removed, at the age of 15, to that of Paris, and so distinguished himself by his mathematical and military exercises, that he was appointed second lieutenant of artillery the very next year. In 1793, he was made captain; colonel the same year, at the siege of Toulon; and general of division in '95.

In '99 he was named First Consul for ten years; consul for life in 1802; and emperor in 1804.

Even at school he displayed his military tastes. He turned his little garden at Brienne into an encampment, surrounded it with a palisade, and was exceedingly angry if any of the boys presumed to invade it. His favourite sport was playing the wars of the ancient Greeks and Persians, Romans and Carthaginians; but he could never be induced to take the losing side.

* The five sons were Joseph, Napoléon, Lucien, Louis, and Jérôme. The three daughters were Elisa, Pauline, and Caroline.

† This military school no longer exists.

His first political association was with the Jacobins, the most sanguinary of all the revolutionary factions; and the service which secured his command in Italy was the turning his artillery on the people on the 13th Vendémiaire, Year IV. (5th October, 1795).

¶ In his first campaign, he defeated five large armies and won twelve battles in one year (1796): viz., five over Beaulieu, three over Würmser, and three over Alvinzi, Austrian generals; with one at Mondövi, in Sardinia, over the Piedmontese.* The rapidity of his conceptions, the inexhaustibleness of his invention, the energy of his will, the decision which suffered not a moment's pause between a purpose and its execution, the presence of mind which devised means of safety and success on the very brink of ruin, added to a courage which never faltered, at least in his earlier career, were the mysterious causes of his almost superhuman success.

¶ Next to Italy, Egypt became the stage of his achievements, Egypt with whom France was, at the time, in profound peace. The sole object of this campaign was to obtain a stand-point for attacking England through her Indian possessions.

¶ The next great event in his history, was his usurpation of the supreme power, and the establishment in France of a military despotism. Was he satisfied? No. Europe must be his empire; and next to Europe, India. Had India been gained, the world must have been his one and sole dominion. He knew the price at which this universal empire was to be purchased, but, provided he could secure it, never scrupled at the means. Strange as it may seem, he actually added to France Holland, Italy, Switzerland, Piedmont, the Ionian Isles, the Austrian Netherlands, Westphalia, Hanover, and the Hanseatic cities; Spain and Portugal were seized upon, Russia was attempted, and England greatly desired. He increased the empire more than one-third. When he first came into power, France contained only 83 departments; to these he added 47 others, making the number 130, which, at his fall, were reduced to 86.

Of his 52 victories the most celebrated are the following:—

At the bridge of Lodi (10th May, 1796), over the Austrians under Beaulieu.

At Castiglione (6th July, 1796), over the Austrians under Würmser.

At Arcola (9th November, 1796), over the Austrians under Alvinzi.

At Marengo (14th June, 1800), over the Austrians under Melas.

At Austerlitz (2nd December, 1805), over the Austrians and Russians under their two emperors.

At Jena (14th October, 1806), over the Prussians under their king.

At Fiedland (14th June, 1807), over the Russians and Prussians.

And at Wagram (5th July, 1809), over the Austrians under the archduke Karl.

His great defeats were:—

At Leipsic (18th October, 1813), by the allied Austrians, Russians, and Prussians.

And at Waterloo (18th June, 1815), by the British and their allies.

To these may be added the Retreat from Moscow, which was a series of defeats and disasters.

His Character. His intellect was distinguished by rapidity of thought. He understood at a glance what most men learn only by study or experience, and darted to conclusions by intuition.

Of war he was a true master. He seized, in an instant, on the salient points both of his own and of his enemy's position, and saw every available advantage. He understood war as a science; overwhelmed his foe by the suddenness of his attack; and had the art of infusing into his soldiers unbounded confidence.

Ambition is scarcely strong enough to express his overweening thirst of being the *alpha* and *omega* of men. He would be Alexander, Cæsar, Augustus, and

* Over Beaulieu, at Cairo, Montenotté, Millesimo, Dego, and at the bridge of Lodi, all in Italy. Over Würmser, at Castiglione, Rovereto, and Bassano. Over Alvinzi, at Arcola, Rivoli, and Mantua. He also chased the archduke Karl from Italy to Leoben in Styria.

Justinian, all in one. No domestic attachment, no private friendship, no love of pleasure, no human sympathy, no religious veneration, was allowed to divide his mind with this ruling passion. Joséphine was dear to him, but greatness was dearer, and he cast her off. His brothers were regarded with affection, but were disgraced the moment they stood in his way. His mother was honoured and esteemed, but was not allowed to sit in his presence. He was tender-hearted, but scrupled not to sacrifice thousands and tens of thousands to further his selfish policy. He was no atheist, but professed himself a Mahometan to gain his end. He hungered and thirsted to be talked about as a wonder, and every day was considered lost which did not help to place him before the world as a prodigy. He lived to create a sensation, to thunder, lighten, and astonish Europe.

How he Rose. He seized the first dignity of France by military force, and made the leading men of all parties sharers in his spoils. By this means, he leagued in the execution of his plans all the talent which the revolution had called forth. The financial state of the nation was then set right; and forces were provided to retrieve the recent disgraces of the French armies.

(2) The boldness and energy which conducted an army, with its cavalry, artillery, and stores, across the Alps, by untried paths and everlasting snows, threw a halo round his name which all Europe acknowledged and admired; and the victory of Marengo, gained at the very moment of defeat, made France believe him *Invincible*. The soldiers idolized him, and the whole nation was elated with vain-glory.

(3) Another important item in his success was the system of *espionage* fostered by the Directory and perfected by himself under the auspices of Fouché. Every man of mark had the eye of a spy upon him, who watched him at home and abroad, in the boudoir and theatre, in the café and gaming house. Every whisper was caught up by the police, and carried to their employer. Thus malcontents were effectually silenced, and rebellion crushed before it had time to develop itself.

(4) The ban upon the press was in complete accordance with the same spirit. No one was allowed to breathe a word against the government or governor. All might praise, admire, and flatter; but woe to him who dared to express a hint of disapproval or of doubt!

(5) A fifth means employed by this extraordinary man in building up his power was religion. The Christian religion had been stifled by the revolutionary governments, but had not been driven from the hearts of the people. Napoléon employed this powerful organ to conciliate thousands to his usurpation. He had professed himself a Mussulman a year or two before, to win the Egyptians; and now extorted from the pope a "concordat," for the re-establishment of popery in France. It was not religion he cared for, but he wanted the support of the religious community and powerful priesthood; knowing this, that though atheists and infidels can tolerate a state religion, the religious community cannot exist under a government which forbids them to worship the God whom they adore.

(6) Again, his public works were very numerous, and most of them of a striking and dazzling character, calculated to astonish people and make them talk.

Witness his two roads over the Alps: One a carriage-road over Mount Cenis (*Sa-néz*), connecting Savoy with Piedmont; the other the stupendous road over the Simplon, connecting the Vallais with the confines of Piedmont and Lombardy. This was indeed a marvel, and all who see it gaze on it with admiration.

Witness again his improvements in the city of Paris: The bridges of Austerlitz and Jena (*Ya-nar*); the chaste and elegant Bourse; the gorgeous and

elaborate Madeleine; the exquisite column of the Place Vendôme; the splendid Arc de Triomphe in the Champs-Élysées, and that in the Place du Carrousel in imitation of the arch of Septimius-Sevêrus, at Rome; the improvements in the Hôtel-des-Invalides, and in the palace of the Louvre, &c., &c.

Witness again his institutions and foundations: His schools for the army and navy; his hospitals; his "legion of honour" for the reward of merit; his encouragement of manufactures, commerce, and the arts. How could he be otherwise than popular? He had the gift of catching every one and of pleasing all classes of his subjects.

Being told one day by Fouché that the Parisians were beginning to talk politics, he sent a phalanx of men to *gild* the enormous dome of the Hôtel-des-Invalides to divert their attention from so dangerous a subject.

(7) Much of all this was *ad captandum*; not so his "code of laws," which has been universally admired; and the only fault complained of in it is, that political offenders are subjected to special tribunals of a military character, and not to the ordinary civil courts.

Causes of his Fall. So long as he directed his energies to the restoration of France, all the works of his hands prospered; but when personal ambition and the monopoly of dominion interfered with this object, misadventure and disgrace were the results.

(2) The instrument he employed for the establishment of a universal monarchy, viz., physical force, was not adapted to the advancement of the age. It was all very well in the days of ancient Rome, when the peoples to be brought under were isolated and half savages; but the state of Europe in the 19th century was entirely changed. It was a net-work of highly-civilized nations, linked together by a common religion and commercial intercourse; and if Napoléon would bring such peoples as these under his sway, he should have acted on their minds and moral powers. If he had succeeded in leading their minds captive, his dominion would have been complete, and the homage given him would have been voluntary.

(3) He had not only a wrong estimate of the people to be subdued, he had no less a wrong estimate of himself. Of the former, he thought too meanly; of the latter, too well. He dared danger. He defied nature. He would be superior to every obstacle. He even courted difficulties. In his passage over the Alps he succeeded, but in his Russian expedition he signally failed.

(4) His arbitrary blockade of the ports of Europe against British merchandise, called the "continental system," whereby he intended to cripple England through her commerce, was a grand error. Of course it injured England, but it drained the life-blood of his allies and dependencies who were compelled to adopt it. It "bruised our heel," but it "bruised his head." For, be it remembered, it was "eating this forbidden fruit" that led to the Russian campaign, that armed all Europe in self-defence, and that caused his final overthrow at Waterloo.

(5) No less short-sighted was the notion of strengthening himself by seating his own family on the thrones of Europe, as his satellites or prefects. What was the natural effect of this measure? As the princes so elevated were not allowed to identify themselves with their own people, they gained no hold on their subjects, and could bring no strength to their master in the hour of need. A king isolated from his subjects and surrounded by enemies, can be of no support to any one, but would rather require aid to support his own weak throne.

(6) His fall began in Spain. In order to make it a province of his empire he kidnapped its royal family; and, after shedding his best blood in defence of his perfidious usurpation, signally failed in his attempt.

Next came his disastrous expedition against Russia, an expedition against which his wisest counsellors remonstrated. By this misadventure, the empire

of Europe was effectually removed from his grasp. The tide of his fortune turned, and never flowed again.

To the retreat from Moscow followed the defeat at Leipsic, his banishment to Elba, and his final overthrow at Waterloo.

Nothing can justify his compelling the Italians to surrender, what had hitherto been held sacred in the most malignant wars, their choicest paintings and works of art, the chief ornaments of their principal cities.

Nothing can justify his abjuration of Christianity and profession of the Mahometan faith in Egypt, in order to delude the people and gain for himself political power.

Nothing can justify his shooting the 3800 prisoners of Jaffa (*Joppa*), after they had been admitted to quarter.

Nothing can justify his judicial murder of the duc d'Enghien; his putting to death Andreas Hoffer, the "Tell of the Tyrol;" or his murdering on the plains of Grenelle, the retainers of the Queen of Etruria, whose only offence was serving their mistress too faithfully.

It would be difficult to defend his desertion of his troops on their way from Moscow, when they were dying by hundreds of famine, cold, and the pursuing foe.

It would be difficult to defend his flight from Waterloo, where he left his army to the tender mercies of the exasperated Blücher.

It would be no less difficult to understand how he could claim the hospitality of England as a voluntary captive, when he had actually embarked for America, and only gave himself up to Captain Maitland because he saw escape to be impossible.

SECOND RESTORATION OF LOUIS XVIII.

(FROM 1815 TO 1824.)

Convention of St. Cloud (5 July, 1815). After the battle of Waterloo, the French army to the amount of 120,000 men, encamped before Paris to dispute possession with the allies, but the heads of the government were unwilling to provoke another contest; and a Military Convention, signed at St. Cloud by Davoust, Wellington, and Blücher, put an end to further hostilities. The next day, the allies entered Paris for the second time, and Louis-the-Desired followed on the 8th of the same month. During its occupation by the allied troops, Paris presented a very strange spectacle. Soldiers of divers nations, Russians, Austrians, and semi-barbarians from the deserts of Tartary, with English and Belgians, all quartered together.

In the boulevards and squares huts had been constructed, at the doors of which might be seen men cooking their food, or botching their garments, or looking over their booty, or bartering with the natives. Horses tied to trees were nibbling the leaves or bark. Warlike accoutrements, arms of every description, from the Tartar lance to the European pistol, were piled in all directions. A jargon of languages rendered the streets a perfect Babel. But what was strangest of all, was the good order and peaceable demeanour of the foreign soldiers, and the apparent unconcern of the French under circumstances so truly humiliating.

The Holy Alliance (26 September, 1815). In July, the three absolute monarchs, the czar of Russia, emperor of Austria, and king of Prussia, signed a compact to pursue no policy in future which had not for its object the maintenance of Christianity, justice, and peace. In upholding these high-sounding principles, they swore to stand fast to each other, and suffer no other power to touch any portion of their respective dominions.

France entered this alliance on the 26th September. It was called "Holy," but like the "Holy Wars" has been signalized by acts of the grossest injustice. It was under its sanction that Austria laid claim to Italy; established from north to south courts-marshal; and inflicted on the native monarchs the most infamous vengeance. The conduct of Russia has been scarcely less reprehensible; but these matters belong only indirectly to the history of France.

Paris Treaty (20 November, 1815). A second Treaty was signed at Paris, in November, between France and the four allied powers. The allies demanded five concessions: The restoration of the frontier of 1790; the demolition of the fortifications of Huningue (*in France*); the payment of thirty millions sterling as an indemnity; the restitution of the "Department of Mont Blanc" to Sardinia; and the establishment of an army of occupation for three or five years, at the option of the allies, and at the expense of France. These humiliating conditions France was obliged to accept.

The paintings, statues, and other works of art taken by Napoléon from Italy and Germany were restored: Such as the cedar statue of the *Virgin*, said to have been carved by St. Luke, taken with other precious relics from the chapel of Loretto: the *Lion of St. Mark* and *Horses of Corinth*, taken from Venice.

Proscriptions and Executions. Towards the close of the year, an amnesty was passed, granting full pardon to all who had taken part with Napoléon in the recent struggle; but 19 generals or high officers were excepted, and brought to trial before the Council of War. The chief of these were marshal Ney, general Labédoyère, prince Murat, and the Comte de Lavalette. The first three were shot, but the last effected his escape, and was subsequently pardoned.

Michel NEY (1769—1815), duke of Elchingen, prince of Moskwa, a peer and marshal of France, generally entitled the *brave des braves*, was a man of most intrepid courage, appointed to take command of the army designed to make a descent on England. When Napoléon returned from Elba, Ney so highly disapproved of the act, that he volunteered to go and arrest him; but when he met his old general, his troops deserted, and Ney could not resist joining him. He fought at Waterloo, where he had five horses killed under him. The duke of Wellington vehemently opposed his condemnation in the court-martial, but was over-ruled; and the noble marshal, was shot as a traitor, on the 7th December, 1815.

Comte de LABÉDOYÈRE [*La-be-do'-yare*] (1786—1815) served in the imperial guards at Eylau [*I-lou*]; was in the retreat from Moscow; and was the first to bring a regiment to Napoléon on his return from Elba. Being found in Paris, after its occupation by the allied armies, he was tried by court-marshal and shot.

Joachim MURAT (1771—1815), brother-in-law of Napoléon, and king of Naples, was the son of an innkeeper at Cahors. On the formation of the national guard he entered that corps, and soon rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He followed Bonaparte to Italy and Egypt, and in 1800 married Marie Caroline Bonaparte, his youngest sister. Napoléon, when emperor, created him marshal, grand admiral, prince of France, and king of Naples. Murat accompanied Napoléon to Russia; but, in the retreat, left the perishing army, and followed the selfish example of the emperor. After the battle of Leipsic, finding the throne of Napoléon tottering, he concluded an alliance against his brother-in-law. In 1815, Murat, who had promised fidelity to Austria twice took up arms to recover his lost throne. In his second attempt, he was seized; tried by court-marshal; and shot. Murat, though a brave man, was a great fop, and prided himself on the splendour of his attire and elegance of his person. He was so faithless, selfish, and vain, that no one sympathised in his fall.

Comte de LAVALETTE (1760—1830) first served as a volunteer in the army of the Alps, but, after the battle of Arcôla, was made aide-de-camp to general Bonaparte and married Joséphine's niece. He accompanied Bonaparte to Egypt, and, on his return to Paris, was made Director-general of the post-office and counsellor of state. When Napoléon returned from Elba, Lavalette stopped the government dispatches, and sent Napoléon secret intelligence of what was being done. After the 100 days, he was arrested and condemned to death; but, when the turnkey entered his cell to lead him to execution, the prisoner was not to be found; his *wife* had taken his place. The alarm was given; the barriers closed; but Lavalette, aided by three Englishmen, reached Munich as an English officer. Five years afterwards he had permission to return to France, and lived for ten years in retirement. Madame Lavalette never recovered the shock of this event, but continued, till the day of her death, deranged in intellect.

Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle (30 November, 1818). The French bore with great impatience the army of occupation; and, at the expiration of three years, the duc de Richelieu, first minister of the crown, persuaded the allied sovereigns, then assembled in congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, to withdraw it.

Assassination of the duc de Berry (13 February, 1820). Louvel [*Loo-vel*], by trade a saddler, worked in the stables of Napoléon, and conceived a kind of infatuated hatred to the Bourbons. For six years he ruminated on their destruction, and at last began with the youngest, intending, if possible, to exterminate the whole race.

The duc de Berry was the son of the comte d'Artois, the king's brother. He was stabbed with a poignard, as he was returning from the opera, and died the next day. Louvel [*Loo-vel*] was condemned to death, and suffered with great calmness, declaring to the last he had no confederates.

On the 29th September, 1820, seven months after the assassination of his father, was born Henri, duc de Bordeaux, comte de Chambord, who represents the elder branch of the Bourbon family, and is styled by the Bourbonists *Henri V.* of France. He is still living at Frohsdorf, in Austria, and is described as inheriting all the indolence, corpulency, and easy manners of his race, wholly without genius, and never likely to bestir himself to recover his regal inheritance.

Death of Louis XVIII. (16 September, 1824). For several years previous to his death, Louis-the-Desired had lost the use of his limbs, and was moved about in an easy chair, a mountain of inert flesh. Tormented with gout and corpulency he felt his health failing, and died, at the age of 79, after a reign of ten years.

He was polished, fond of literature, gentle, and kind. Several aphorisms are ascribed to him, such as *Punctuality is the politeness of kings*, and *A king of France ought to die standing*. Probably, he cared more for his own ease and quiet than for anything else. Like all the Bourbons, he was a large eater and very self-indulgent.

COSTUME IN THE FIRST HALF OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

The costume, in the early part of the 19th century, was certainly as ugly and absurd as extravagance and bad taste could make it. Dating a little further

back, to the beginning of the reign of Louis XV. we come to those mountains of curls, powder, flowers, and feathers, which rose "alp above alp;" and were laden, like stalls of the green-grocer or market gardener, with carrots, turnips, and cabbages, spades, rakes, and other absurd ornaments.

Suddenly the "top knots came down;" and flat-crowned broad-brimmed straw or silk hats, surrounded with ribbons, were placed upon heads of hair which bulged out at each side like a bishop's wig, profusely powdered; while two or three enormous curls fell from beneath it upon the shoulders.

Next came the negligé style: hair dishevelled and flowing down the back; pocket hoops, like panniers; high-peaked stays, and yard-long waists.

The Revolution abolished powder, hoops, and stays; and ladies dressed in the Greek and Roman style, in transparent muslin, drawn very low upon the neck so as to expose the shoulders and bosom, made to cling round their forms, and girdled absolutely under the armpits. Roman sandals were the fashion; and the hair was left to flow over the shoulders without restraint.

In the empire, a kind of military style was adopted by the men: Knee breeches and shoes, enormous shirt frills, high-collared coats with swallow tails, and monster collars reaching to the cheekbones. The ladies continued the flimsy gown, short waist, and flat-crowned bonnet.

In the reign of Louis XVIII., the climax was given to this ugliness of dress. Gentlemen wore a coat with tight sleeves, waist on their shoulder-blades, and terminating in a short pointed tail. Their hat was low-crowned, and its extremely small brim was very much curled at the sides.

Ladies' gowns were also made with the waist under the armpits, with skirts so short as to expose their ankles, and body so low as to expose their neck, chest, and shoulders. Their bonnets were monstrously large; and the crown laden with flowers and plumes of feathers. A reticule in the hand was an indispensable part of the street costume.

CELEBRITIES.

The chief celebrities, in the reign of Napoleon I. and Louis XVIII. were Bernadotte *king of Sweden*, Fouché, and Talleyrand; Guyton de Morveau, Berthollet [*Bair-tol-lay*], and Fourcroy, *chemists*; Lalande, Lagrange, Monge, Laplace, and Malus [*Mar-luce*], *philosophers*; Delille, Lebrun, Chenier, and Ducis, [*Du-see*], *poets*; Bernardin de St. Pierre; Vien [*Ve-ah'n*] and David, regenerators of French painting; Houdon the *statuary*; Gretry the *musician*; Talma the prince of tragic *actors*; and Madame de Staël.

Joseph FOUCHÉ duke of Otranto (1763—1820), was a deputy in the National Convention, and voted for the death of Louis XVI. He subsequently joined in the destruction of Robespierre, and was placed by Barras at the head of the Parisian police, in which office he employed so much activity and acuteness, that Napoleon made him duke of Otranto.

When Napoléon married his second wife he grew suspicious of Fouché, and demanded his resignation. He was then sent in honourable exile into Italy, with the empty title of Governor of Rome.

During the "Hundred Days," the portfolio of the police was restored to Fouché; and, after the battle of Waterloo, he was nominated president of the provisional government, in which position he advised Napoléon to abdicate.

Louis XVIII. continued him for a little time in the police; but in 1816 he was denounced as a regicide; outlawed; and retired to Trieste, where he died.

Fouché was certainly one of the most celebrated, and perhaps one of the most designedly wicked men of all the French revolutionists. In the police

department he was doubtless very shrewd; but never was man less scrupulous or more unprincipled.

Talleyrand (1754—1838) was descended from one of the most illustrious houses in France, and at the age of 25 was created bishop of Autun [*O-tuh'n*].

In 1789, he was chosen to represent the clergy of his diocese in the States-General, and took a very leading part in the Revolution. He is especially famous for having proposed the suppression of the payment of tithes, a proposal which brought all the enormous church property of France into the hands of the state.

He officiated, on the *Day of Federation* (14 July 1790), in pontifical robes, at the altar in the Champ-de-Mars, and was the first to take the civic oath. He afterwards consecrated the first "Constitutional bishops," for which he was excommunicated by the pope; gave up his bishopric; and retired to America. On his return, he was elected, by the Directory, Minister of Foreign Affairs. The emperor made him Grand Chamberlain, and created him *prince of Benevento*, but, in 1806, dismissed him, for opposing the Spanish War; and, from this moment, Talleyrand was the most active agent of the tyrant's overthrow.

On the abdication of Napoléon, the ex-bishop of Autun [*O-tuh'n*] was one of the provisional government; and remained so till the restoration, when he again received the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, and was created *prince de Talleyrand*.

When Louis-Philippe ascended the throne, Talleyrand was sent ambassador to England, and remained seven years in London. The one great project of his ministry being to cement the alliance of England and France.

Prince Talleyrand, who was lame, was selfish and deceitful, but a true patriot, and the best diplomatist of his time; wonderfully skilled in foreign affairs, brilliant in conversation, and a true wit. He left his *Memoirs*, which were not to be published till '68; it is thought that they will throw much light upon the eventful period in which he lived.

§ LALANDE, LAGRANGE, LAPLACE, AND MALUS (*philosophers.*)

Lalande (1732—1807), a very celebrated astronomer, was one of the greatest luminaries in science that France ever produced. His works fill 60 ponderous volumes, but his *Treatise on Astronomy* is perhaps the best known.

In 1751, he was charged to go to Berlin, to make observations on the distance of the Moon from our Earth. Lalande was an atheist and "gloried in his shame."

Delambre, his pupil, author of several astronomical works, constructed tables of Uránus the newly-discovered planet, and was employed to measure the meridian of Paris.

Lagrange (1736—1813), the mathematician, is especially famous for having calculated the motion of fluids, and the method of vibrations. He also introduced into the "differential calculus" the theory of recurring consequences, and the doctrine of chances. His great works are *Analytical Mechanics*, and *Analytical Functions*.

Napoléon made him a senator; loaded him with honours; and admitted him to his friendship. Next to Newton, Lagrange has done more than any other philosopher to advance the explication of the system of the world.

Laplace (1749—1827), mathematician and astronomer, is especially celebrated for his work entitled *Exposition of the System of the World*, in which he completed Newton's famous system of gravitation. His other works are, *Theory of the Movement and Elliptical Figure of the Planets*; *History of Astronomy*; and *Celestial Mechanics*, &c.

After the Revolution, he was made Minister of the Interior by Napoléon, who was then first consul; but he was subsequently removed from this post to make room for Lucien Bonaparte, and was then admitted into the senate, of which he afterwards became president. In 1814, he voted for the deposition of Napoléon; and, on the re-organization of peers, was created a marquis.

Malus (1775—1812) is immortalized by his discovery of the *polarization of light*.

Gayton de Morveau (1737—1817) claims the honour of being the first to employ *chloride of lime* as a disinfectant, and is still better known as the person who proved that the diamond is only a combustible crystal of pure carbon; in the process, he discovered the way of converting iron into fine steel.

Foucroi (1775—1822) was the discoverer of several detonating substances.

Berthollet (1748—1809) discovered the bleaching property of *chlorine*, and was the first to employ *charcoal* for the purification of water.

Vauquelin (1763—1829) discovered what is called *Chromium*.

§ DELILLE, LEBRUN, CHENIER, AND DUCIS (*poets*).

Jacques Delille (1738—1813), a didactic poet of first-rate eminence, translated the "Georgics" of Virgil, and composed several original pieces, the best of which are *The Gardens*; *The Three Reigns of Nature*; *Imagination*; and *Pity*.

He also produced a dithyrambic on *The Immortality of the Soul*, translated Milton's "Paradise Lost," Pope's "Essay on Man," and Virgil's "Æneid."

Delille had not much creative power, but is wholly unrivalled in smoothness of versification, purity of moral sentiment, and true pathos.

Ponce Denis **Lebrun** (1729—1807), called the French *Pindar*, was born in Paris; and, at the breaking out of the Revolution, became the poet of liberty.

As the prospect darkened he changed his note; deplored in verse the fate of his unhappy country; and ultimately received a munificent pension from Napoléon Bonaparte.

His best productions are an *Ode on the Earthquake of Lisbon*, another to *Voltaire*, and a *National Ode* written when Napoleon projected a descent on England.

Marie Joseph **Chénier** (1764—1811), the poet, was born at Constantinople, where his father was French consul. He was prodigiously popular as a poet during the Revolution.

He wrote a number of Revolutionary Songs, but is more especially known for his dramatic productions, which are written in a pure style, are full of energy and enthusiasm, and breathe out a love of liberty and hatred of tyranny quite enthusiastic.

His chief dramas are *Charles IX.*, *Henry VIII.*, the *Death of Calas*, *Gracchus*, *Fénelon*, and *Timoléon*.

Chénier was a member of all the Revolutionary Assemblies, and was declared by proclamation, to be the first poet of the nation.

His odes were sung on the anniversaries of the 14th of July, the 10th of August, and at all the other festivals of the Revolution.

Chénier's brother André was also a poet, and was guillotined. Marie Joseph was one of the legislative assembly at the time, and said, "If my brother André is guilty, let him perish." It is said that Marie Joseph received several letters comparing him to Cain the fratricide.

Ducis (1733—1817), the dramatic poet, took Shakespeare for his model, and adapted to the French stage "Hamlet," "Romeo and Juliet," "King Lear," "Macbeth," and "Othello." He also composed an original tragedy called the *Arab Family*, which enjoyed immense success.

Ducis [*Du-see*] is energetic, pathetic, and sometimes sublime; but his dramas want unity; and some of his adaptations are so far removed from the originals, that the genius of Shakespeare is wholly lost in them.

Ducis lived all through the Revolution, but took no part whatever in the political movements of the period.

Gretry (1741—1813) produced about 30 comic operas, the best of which was *Richard-Cœur-de-Lion*. He did much to reform the wretched style of the French language, corrupted during the Revolution, but was himself in some measure tainted with the same infection.

St. Pierre (1737—1814) was the author of *Studies of Nature*, the pretty tale of *Paul and Virginia*, and the less known but not less pretty *Indian Cottage*.

Madame de Stael (1766—1817), authoress of *Corinne*, and "Observations on Germany," was the only child of Necker the finance minister. Her mother was the lady to whom Gibbon, our great historian, made love, and would have married, if his father would have allowed him.

She married, at the age of 20, baron de Staël, a young Swede, attached to the Swedish embassy, from whom, however, she soon separated. He died in 1802, and eight years afterward she married a young soldier named Rocca, whose name she never assumed.

Of all the women who have been the leaders of society, none ever was more popular or more worthy of admiration than the rich banker's daughter; even before her marriage she had attracted considerable attention by her wit, spirit, and talent.

She took no part in the Revolution, although on one occasion she narrowly escaped with her life; but when Napoléon came into power, her drawing-room in the *Rue de Bac* became so popular, that the Great Parvenu banished her from Paris, and even in her retirement at Coppet in Geneva, subjected her to a series of petty annoyances.

At length she came to England, the lioness of London, to whom all the fashionable and great offered homage. In 1814 she hastened to her beloved Paris; and Wellington and Blücher, Lafayette, Chateaubriand, and young Guizot, Humboldt, and Sismondi, rallied round her. Canova represented art in her salon, and Madame Récamier beauty.

When the caged lion burst from his island home, Madame de Staël fled. Her last days were spent in Geneva, at Coppet, her private residence.

As an authoress, Madame de Staël stands very high. Her *Corinne* is a book of travels in the guise of a novel, of which she herself is the heroine. Never did work excite a more European enthusiasm. Her most elaborate work is *De l'Allemagne*.

CHARLES X.

REIGNED 6 YEARS. FROM 1824 TO 1830. Contemporary with George IV.

Married Maria-Theresa of Savoy, who died in 1805.

Issue. (1) Louis-Antoine, duc d'Angoulême, who married his cousin Marie-Thérèse, daughter of Louis XVI. and Marie-Antoinette; and accompanied his uncle (Louis XVIII.) to Varsovie and Hartwell. When the dynasty was restored, the duke and duchess returned to France; but when his father abdicated, he ceded all his rights to the duc de Bordeaux, and retired first to England and then to Austria, under the name of the comte de Marnes. Louis-Antoine died in 1844. His wife, surnamed the *Modern Antigone*, died 1851.

(2) The duc de Berry, assassinated by Louvel 13th February, 1820. His son Henri, duc de Bordeaux, was born in the September following. He is still living, and is generally called the comte de Chambord, though some style him Henri V. of France. He married Marie-Thérèse-Béatrix, daughter of Francis IV. of Modena; and lives at the castle of Frohsdorf, in Austria.

Residences.—The Tuilleries, St. Cloud, &c.

Address of the Royal Family. Marie-Thérèse, duchess d'Angoulême, *Dauphine*.

Caroline, duchesse de Berry, *Madame*.

Louise de Berry, *Mademoiselle*.

In September, 1824, the comte d'Artois succeeded his brother Louis XVIII., under the name and title of Charles X. He was 68

years of age, and reigned 6 years. In point of understanding, he was very inferior to his brother; but was good-tempered and affable. Unfortunately, he entertained very old-fashioned notions about the prerogatives of kings, which soon lost him his crown.

There are but two incidents in this short reign deserving of mention, the battle of Navarino and the conquest of Algeria. All the rest is directly or indirectly connected with the Revolution of 1830.

Navarino (19th October, 1827). The Greeks, who for a long time had been oppressed by the Turks, at length excited the sympathy of Mr. Canning, prime minister of England. Lord Byron had already excited a sentimental interest in behalf of this classic people, once great and free, now down-trodden and degraded; so Mr. Canning found little difficulty in inducing France and Russia to join him in redressing their "wrongs."

A combined fleet was placed under admiral Codrington, by whom the Turkish squadron was attacked in the bay of Navarino, and nearly annihilated. Nothing, so far as England and France are concerned, could have been worse policy than this destruction of the Turkish navy. It crippled Turkey, laid it open to Russia; and, without doubt, paved the way to that "sickness" which led to the Crimean war.

Conquest of Algeria (5th July, 1830). The same year, a misunderstanding arose between France and the Dey of Algiers. On the 14th of June, an army of occupation landed in Africa, and on the 5th of July the Dey abdicated.

A fuller account of this conquest is given in the reign of Louis-Philippe (p. 399).

THE REVOLUTION OF JULY (1830).

The Steps which led to it. Charles X. was not unlike our George III. in character: A kind-hearted pious man, of simple habits, but wonderfully prejudiced, and full of fossilized notions of royalty. He thought obstinacy was firmness; that the secret of ruling was getting your own way; and that yielding was at all times a proof of weakness.

Forgetting that the popular mind resembles the advancing tide of the sea, which no man can resist, he thought to browbeat it and keep it back with a "Mrs. Partington's broom."

He considered a revolutionist but little better than a traitor; and thought, by re-establishing the ancient *régime*, to restore to his people security, prosperity, and peace.

Under this delusion, he attached degrading and atrocious penalties to thefts committed on churches; tried to restore the rights of primogeniture; revived many of the obsolete pomps and ceremonies of the court; and, finding the press hostile to his views, commanded his ministers to fetter it.

¶ Accordingly, Mon. de Peyronnet [*Pay'rön-nay*], early in 1827, presented to the Chamber a bill for that purpose. This unwise proceeding caused an immense sensation. Even the Academy protested against it, and sent a deputy to the king praying him to withdraw it.

Charles refused to receive the deputation, and dismissed from his service all those who had joined in the remonstrance. Peyronnet, however, felt himself obliged to withdraw his project, and all Paris was illuminated.

¶ On the 29th of April, the king went to the Champ-de-Mars [*Sharnd-Mars*] to review the National Guard; and, being assailed by cries of *Down with the Ministers! The Charter for ever!* disbanded, in the heat of his passion, the National Guard.

The news of this arbitrary act stupefied the nation. The press broke forth into menaces; and the king, to keep it in restraint, re-established the censorship.

¶ In November, the Chamber of Deputies was dissolved; and as the ban upon the press expired, in virtue of this dissolution, all the journals employed their mighty influence against the existing cabinet; and the majority of liberal members returned was so great, that the ministers were compelled to resign.

¶ In January, 1828, a new council was formed, with M. de Martignac [*Mar-tin-yak*] at the head. It immediately abolished the censorship of the press, and introduced some other conciliatory measures. But the king viewed with jealousy these concessions; dismissed his advisers; and invited his friend, prince Polignac [*Po-leen-yak*] to form another ministry.

A more unpopular man than prince de Polignac could not have been selected: His father was the friend of Louis XVI., and his mother the confidant of Marie Antoinette; he himself was thought to be the tool of the duke of Wellington, and the head of a faction supported by British intrigue. He had taken part in a conspiracy against the First Consul; and, in politics, belonged to that antiquated "Saurian family," called Church and State Men.

The press clamoured loudly against this appointment. It would be impossible to act with the present house; and, in anticipation of another general election, associations were organized throughout the kingdom for the return of members hostile to the prince.

On the 2nd of March, the king opened the new sessions in person; but the deputies, in reply to the speech from the throne, passed a vote of no-confidence. The king was angry, and dissolved the chamber.

The electors, being called upon to appoint new deputies, re-elected all those who had incurred the royal censure; and returned a large majority of members opposed to the king's favourite.

Charles looked upon this as a personal affront. It was a trial of

strength between himself and the people, and he resolved to stand up manfully in his own defence. On his own responsibility, and by an act of arbitrary power, he published in the *Moniteur*, on the 26th of July, six Royal Ordinances, by which he suspended the liberty of the press; dissolved the new Chamber of Deputies before it had been sworn in; annulled the elections; reduced the number of members from 430 to 258; and disfranchised eight voters out of every nine.

It is impossible to conceive a more audacious attack upon the liberties of the people: The press gagged; the representative constitution torn up by the roots; the legislature reduced to a mere instrument of taxation; eight-ninths of the electors disfranchised; the charter scattered to the winds; what more could have been done? Yet Polignac [*Po-leen-yak*] seemed to think the nation would quietly submit.

The very day this notice appeared in the *Moniteur*, the public journalists held a general convocation, in which resistance was unanimously resolved upon. The Ordinances were a violation of the charter. They were altogether illegal. The king had assumed a power which belonged to the deputies alone; and, as the offensive edicts were illegal, the people owed them no subjection.

By the suppression of the press, 30,000 persons in Paris alone would have been thrown out of employ; and hundreds of thousands, such as coffee-house and reading-room keepers, newsvendors, paper-makers, waiters, &c., &c., greatly injured.

§ *La Grande Semaine, or the Insurrection of July 27, 28, 29.*

Tuesday (27th July, 1830). Next morning, the different journals were published in spite of the royal prohibition, and distributed gratuitously at a very early hour. Of course they were extremely bitter, and tended in no small measure to excite the people to rebellion.

Government agents were sent to seize them and destroy the presses; but the mischief had been done before they arrived.

As the day wore on, the shops were all closed; and multitudes congregated in the streets crying *Down with Polignac! Down with the ministry! The charter for ever! The charter and liberty!* The military was called out; and, as it attempted to clear the streets, constant skirmishes took place between it and the insurgents.

Towards night-fall, the mob became more exasperated and mischievous. The streets were unpaved, barricades thrown up in various places, the lamps broken, and arms seized wherever they could be found.

It is not a little remarkable that this day was the 36th anniversary of the overthrow of Robespierre, who was executed on the 28th of July.

Wednesday (28th July, 1830). The government, with extraordinary infatuation, made no preparation for the morrow; they seemed

to imagine the "riot" to be over; and neither strengthened their posts, sent for additional arms, nor adopted measures to protect their magazines.

The insurgents, on the other hand, employed the short breathing-time with the wisest forethought: Providing ammunition and arms, collecting money, throwing up barricades, forming the inhabitants of the different quarters into bands, and appointing leaders.

The first work of the dawning day was to remove every insignia of royalty from the shops and public offices; to deface the word *royal* wherever it was inscribed; to pull down the white flag; and to destroy the telegraphs.

What especially distinguished the aspect of the populace this morning was the appearance among them of many citizens in the uniform of the National Guard. This guard had been disbanded three years ago, but now appeared in great force, and displayed the famous tricolour, so dear to the revolutionary Frenchman. Early in the day, one of these popular standards was hoisted on Nôtre Dame, and another on the central turret of the Hôtel-de-Ville.

Marshal Marmont, who had charge of the royal troops, seemed utterly bewildered. He kept marching from street to street, exhausting his men "in laborious and dangerous nothings." But what could he do? His soldiers positively refused to fire on the people; and, as soon as an opportunity occurred, whole companies went over to the side of the insurgents. The only troops he could rely upon were the Swiss Guards.

This day the battle raged in every street, from the Quays to the Boulevards, and from the Champs-Élysées to the Faubourg St. Antoine. The military were forced from every position, except that of the Tuileries; and the skill, bravery, and perseverance of the insurgents were crowned with complete success.

Some of the incidents of this fearful day were not devoid of wit. Thus, a bomb discharged by the soldiers was suspended on a house, decorated with tricoloured ribbons and this inscription, *From Charles X. to the people.* Another was suspended to a lamp with similar decorations and this label, *The touching words of our good King Charles to his dearly-beloved people.* A third was hung over a bakehouse, and underneath it was written, *We asked for bread, and he gave us a stone.*

Thursday (29th July, 1830). The retirement of the royal forces on the 28th put an end to the fighting for that day; but the people, far from deeming the victory won, prepared for a renewal of the contest at daybreak.

In every quarter, almost in every street, multitudes plied all night, repairing barricades or raising new ones,* tearing up the pavement, casting balls, felling trees, overturning carts and coaches, and organizing plans for the morrow.

* M. Laumier says as many as 10,000 barricades had been thrown up in three days.

At dawn, the tocsin was sounded, the reveillé beaten, and cries of *To arms! to arms!* rang from one end of the city to the other.

This day, several military officers headed the insurgents, the most eminent of whom was general Dubourg. A large number of the National Guard mixed with the throng; and the students of the Polytechnic acted as leaders to the people.

Marshal Marmont resolved no longer to send detachments to march up and down the streets, as he did yesterday; but to concentrate all his forces in the vicinity of the Tuileries, and act on the defensive.

Scarcely had the fighting begun, when two regiments of the line passed over to the insurgents, and the marshal lost all confidence and almost all presence of mind.

Early in the morning, the insurgents made themselves masters of the Louvre, whence they poured into the Tuileries, driving the military before them, and planting the tricolour on the royal buildings. The pictures of the former palace were, for the most part, uninjured by the mob; but of the latter, all the furniture was thrown out of the windows, and many works of art were utterly destroyed.

By four o'clock in the afternoon, the whole of Paris was in the undisturbed possession of the citizens, and not a soldier was to be seen in the streets.

Mon. de Polignac [*Po-leen-yak*] resisted every remonstrance; and, entrenched behind the authority of the king, continued to the last inflexible. The king, too, refused to retract a single ordinance, and to give credence to the extent of the danger with which he was threatened.

When, at length, Marmont, driven from Paris, appeared at St. Cloud [*San Cloo*] with his shattered battalions, and declared resistance no longer possible, Charles dismissed his obnoxious ministers, and revoked his royal ordinances; but it was too late. The insurgents had already provided a provisional government, and had appointed the marquis of Lafayette General-in-chief of the National Guard; and, when the king's messenger announced the concessions of which he was the bearer, he was told that the time for negotiation was over, and that the royal family could no longer be allowed to reign.

Polignac fled in disguise. Charles X. fled also, first to the Triānon, then to Rambouillet [*Rarm-boo-ě-ya*], and then to England.

He resided for a time at Holyrood, but the French Government represented to the court of St. James that the exiled family was plotting rebellion, and assisting the Carlist party in France.

Our ministers forthwith intimated to the dethroned monarch that he and his family must either give up all correspondence with their old adherents, or quit the island. Charles chose the latter alternative, and retired in 1832 to Hradschin, near Prague. He died, 1836, at Goutz in Austria, of cholera. Charles X. was the only sovereign of the Capétian race who entered his 80th year.

Polignac (1780—1847) was the second son of the *duc de Polignac* [*Po-leen-yak*], the great friend of Louis XVI. He was educated in England. When the *comte d'Artois* fled from France, prince Polignac was his companion, and remained his friend to the last. He returned to France in 1804; took part with his elder brother in Pichegru's plot against the First Consul; and was imprisoned for two years. Not long after his liberation he rejoined the *comte d'Artois*, and performed many services for the exiled Bourbons.

Charles X. made him ambassador to the court of St. James, and six years afterwards Minister of Foreign Affairs and President of the Privy Council.

In politics, the prince de Polignac was what we term an ultra Tory; he resolved to preserve the royal prerogatives; and, despising the people, obstinately refused to yield to their pressure in the "great week" of July. His obstinacy lost his master his crown.

When the struggle was over, Polignac was brought to trial and condemned to perpetual imprisonment in the fort of Ham; but was liberated in 1836, and finished his days tranquilly at St. Germain.

In private life, he was a very estimable man; but he was far more fit for the court of Louis XIV. than for the 19th century.

Duc d'Orleans made **Lieutenant-General** (31st July, 1830). Mon. Thiers and Mon. Scheffer were appointed by the provisional government to wait upon the duke of Orleans, and request him to place himself at the head of the new government. Louis-Philippe acceded to this invitation, and was named Lieutenant-General of the nation on the 31st of July, amidst the loudest acclamations.

On the 2nd of August, Charles X. and his son sent to him their abdication in favour of the *duc de Bordeaux*. It was laid before the deputies, who not only refused to receive it, but offered the crown to the Lieutenant-General.

On the 10th, the duke went in state to the *Palais de Bourbon* to be sworn in. A throne was prepared for him, overshadowed with tricoloured flags, and surmounted with a crimson-velvet canopy. Before it were arranged three settees, one for himself, and the others for his two eldest sons. A table, covered with velvet, on which stood pen and ink, separated the settees from the throne.

The duke made his entry to the sound of the Marseillaise and the roar of cannon. When he had taken his place on the settee, he put on his hat, and desired the members of both Chambers to be seated. The invitation of the deputies was now formally made; and the duke took his oath to observe the charter, govern only by the laws, and to act in everything for the welfare and glory of his people. And, after signing the charter and oath, ascended the throne, as *Louis Philippe I., king of the French*.

Succession of Three Brothers.

The Capétian dynasty terminated with the succession of three brothers (Louis X., Philippe V., and Charles IV., sons of Philippe-le-Bel). The Valois dynasty came next, and terminated in a similar manner with the three sons of Henri II. (François II., Charles IX., and Henri III.). To the Valois succeeded the Bourbon dynasty, and the succession of three brothers proved equally fatal to it (Louis XVI., Louis XVIII., and Charles X.).

After Charles IV. (the third brother of the Capétian dynasty) came Philippe de Valois, a collateral descendant. After Henri III. (the third brother of the Valois dynasty) came

Henri de Bourbon, a collateral descendant. And after Charles X. (the third brother of the Bourbon dynasty) came Louis-Philippe, a collateral descendant.

These triplets are remarkable, and would be still further so, if the present dynasty is successful in superseding the third collateral dynasty of the third brother.

CELEBRITIES IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES X.

Five persons died in the decade of 1830 to whom attention ought to be directed : Lafayette ; Champollion, interpreter of the Egyptian hieroglyphics ; Baron Cuvier, the naturalist ; Antoine-Laurent de Jussieu, the botanist ; and Michaud, historian of the *Crusades* and of the *Hundred Days*.

Lafayette (1757—1834), born of a noble family, was first distinguished in the defence of Virginia, and siege of New York. The renown which he acquired in America, gained for him a seat in the assembly of Notables, and, two years later in the National Assembly, where he was one of the foremost advocates of republican principles.

In the Revolution of '89, he was appointed commander of the National Guard ; but, in '92, he was outlawed, for attempting to help the king to flight. He took no part in the Consulate and first Empire ; but, in 1814, was elected a member of the Representatives ; and, in 1830, was again appointed over the National Guard, in which capacity he contributed greatly to the restoration of order, and establishment of Louis-Philippe on the throne.

His name will always be mentioned with respect, but as a leader he was deficient in forethought, address, and decision. He has left a work behind entitled *Memoirs* in 6 vols.

Champollion (1790—1832), the archæologist, has rendered an immense service to history and the biblical student by discovering the key to the Egyptian hieroglyphics.

In 1799, some French engineers, employed in digging the foundation of fort St. Julien, on the Western bank of the Nile, found a large stone, not unlike a mile-stone, with an inscription in hieroglyphics, Coptic, and Greek. This valuable relic, now in the British museum, and called the Rosetta-Stone, was erected by the Egyptians, some 200 years before the birth of Christ, to Ptolemy Epiphānēs, in gratitude for his services.

Dr. Thomas Young discovered, that the words Ptolemy and Berenice occurred several times in the Greek inscription ; and, upon careful inspection, traced them out in the other two also.

M. Champollion [*Shon-poll-yon*], availing himself of this hint, found other words in other inscriptions, in a similar manner ; and, at length, compiled a complete alphabet of phonetic hieroglyphics. In the prosecution of this labour, he came to the conclusion that the Egyptians employed three distinct sorts of writing, the *hieroglyphic* or sacred, the *hieratic* or sacerdotal, and the *demotic* or vulgar. In a word, he enabled scholars to decipher Egyptian inscriptions, which have thrown great light upon ancient history.

In 1828, he was sent to Egypt by Charles X., and amassed a vast store of valuable information, but died in 1831. The results of this expedition were given to the world by Rosellini, an Italian who accompanied him.

M. Champollion's chief works are *Egypt under the Pharaohs*, supplemented by his *Letters to the Duc de Blacas*, and an *Egyptian Grammar* published posthumously by his son.

George **Cuvier** (1769—1832), the great naturalist, called the *Aristotle of the 19th century*, was a French protestant. At an early age, he was appointed teacher of Comparative Anatomy at the *Jardin-des-Plantes*, in Paris ; and began to form that superb collection in natural history, which is the largest and best in Europe.

The emperor Napoleon greatly encouraged his valuable researches, and commissioned him to superintend the institution of schools in the new "departments" of France; Louis XVIII. also patronized him, and made him Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour; Charles X. neglected him, for advocating the freedom of the press; but Louis-Philippe again recognized his merits, and created him a peer of France, whence he is generally styled Baron.

This truly great genius laid the foundation of the present system of Zoology; raised Comparative Anatomy to a science; threw a flood of light on the natural history of Molluscs, hitherto but little known; rendered invaluable service to the geologist by reconstructing fossil animals; and added greatly to our knowledge of the natural history of Fishes.

His principal works are, *Lessons on Comparative Anatomy*, in 5 vols., an excellent treatise; *History of the Anatomy of Molluscs*; *Researches on Fossil Bones*, a mine of valuable information prefaced by a *Discourse on the Revolutions of the Globe*, at once elegant, simple, and profound; *The Animal Kingdom Distributed according to its Organization*, in 4 vols.; and *The Natural History of Fishes*, continued by Valenciennes.

Baron Cuvier proved that all the organs of an animal have a "correlation" to each other, and therefore if one bone or organ is known, the form and habits of the animal may be inferred. It was by this means he was enabled to reconstruct Ante-diluvian animals from random fossils presented to his investigation.

Antoine-Laurent de Jussieu (1748—1836), author of the Natural System of Botany, was demonstrator of Botany in the Jardin des Plantes; and, as Cuvier says, "made an epoch in that science, as Lavoisier in that of chemistry."

For nearly two centuries, the Jussieus have been distinguished as Botanists. Antoine was the pupil of Bernard Jussieu his uncle, and succeeded him in the chair of botany. Bernard published very little, but Cuvier calls him, "the most modest and profound botanist of the 18th century."

Jussieu's principal work is *Plants arranged according to their Natural Orders*.

The two systems of Botany are the artificial and the natural. The former by Linnæus, and the latter by Jussieu. By the former, all plants are ranged under 27 classes, according to the number, length, form, or position, of their stamens. This of course is an artificial arrangement. By Jussieu, all plants are classified under three grand primary divisions according to the character of their seed. Thus there is the lobeless seed, the embryo which is contained in one seed-lobe, and that which has two seed-lobes. The first are called *A-cotylédons*, the second *Mono-cotylédons*, and the third, *Di-cotylédons*.

This system has since been greatly developed, and is now almost universally received.

N. B. In 1784, Jussieu was employed with others to examine into the new theory of "animal magnetism," propounded by Mesmer; and gave it as his opinion, that the effects produced are to be ascribed to the action of animal heat.

LOUIS-PHILIPPE (*Le Roi Citoyen*).

REIGNED 18 YEARS. FROM 1830 TO 1848. Contemporary with William IV. and Victoria.

Louis XIII.

Louis XIV.
&c.

(1640—1701) Philippe de France*
Created duc d'Orléans by his
brother Louis XIV.

(1674—1723) Philippe, *Regent*

(1703—1752) Louis

(1725—1785) Louis-Philippe

(1747—1793) Philippe, *Egalité*

(1773—1850) Louis-Philippe

* He married the grand-daughter of James I. of England.

Married the princess Marie-Amélie, duchesse d'Orléans, daughter of the king of Sicily, and niece of Marie-Antoinette.

Issue. Six sons and three daughters.

- Sons.** (1) FERDINAND-PHILIPPE, duc d'Orléans (1810—1842). Married the princess Helena of Mecklenburgh, and left two sons, the present *comte de Paris* (born 1838), married 1864; the *duc de Chartres* (born 1840), married 1863. These young men joined the federalists of North America as aides-de-camp of General McClellan in 1861, but quitted America the following year. See Nos. 3, 6.
- (2) LOUIS-CHARLES, duc de Nemours (born 1814). Married a daughter of Ferdinand, duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and was therefore related by marriage to the late Prince Albert. He is now a widower. His son, Comte d'Eu, married (1864) Isabelle, eldest daughter of the emperor of Brazil.
- (3) FRANÇOIS-FERDINAND, prince de Joinville (born 1818). Married a sister of the late Emperor of Brazil. His daughter François married the duc de Chartres.
- (4) CHARLES, duc de Penthièvre (1820, *died young*.)
- (5) HENRI-EUGÈNE, duc d'Aumale (born 1822). Married a daughter of the prince of Salerno. (1844.)
- (6) ANTOINE-MARIE-PHILIPPE, duc de Montpensier (born 1824). Married a sister of the Queen of Spain. (1846). His eldest daughter, Marie-Isabelle, married the Comte de Paris (1864).

Daughters. Louise, Marie, and Clementine.

Louise (1812—1850) married *Leopold king of Belgium*.

Marie (1813—1839) married *Alexander of Württemberg*. This daughter was the famous sculptor.

Clementine (born 1817) married *Augustus of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha*, and was therefore related to the late prince Albert.

Titles and Names. 1773—1785 duc de Valois.

of 1785—1793 duc de Chartres, when his father became duc d'Orléans.

Louis Philippe. 1793—1830 Duc d'Orléans, at his father's death, but this title was not assumed by him till 1817.

1793 *He called himself M. Chabaud-Latour, and was teacher in a school in Switzerland.*

1794 *He called himself M. Corby.*

1795 *He called himself Herr Müller, and travelled in the North of Europe.*

1848 He abdicated, and assumed, in his passage to England, the name of *William Smith*

1848—1850 He went by the title of Comte de Neuilly.

Residences. He was brought up at St. Leu, near Paris.

From 1800—1807 he resided at Twickenham on the Thames.

1807—1814 travelled to Malta, Naples, Spain, &c.

1815—1817 he returned to Twickenham.

1817—1830 he lived chiefly at his country seat at Neuilly, near Paris.

1830—1848 the palace of the Tuilleries.

1848—1850 he lived at Claremont, in England.

Ministers. 1830, Dupont and Laffette; 1831, Casimir Périer; 1832, Marshal Soult; 1836 and 1840, Thiers; 1837, Molé; 1840—1843 and 1848 Guizot.

History. "Louis-Philippe," by Boudin and Mouttet; "Europe depuis l'avènement de Louis-Philippe," by Capefigue; "Louis-Philippe," &c., by A. Dumas; "Etudes Biog. sur Louis-Philippe," by Boullée; "Le roi Louis-Philippe, &c.," by Montalivet; "Histoire de la chute de Louis-Philippe," by Groisilliez; "Histoire de dix ans" by Louis-Blanc; "Biog. de Louis-Philippe" by Michaud; and *Memoires*, by himself.

INTRODUCTION.

i. Louis-Philippe and his brothers were educated by Madame de Genlis, eminently qualified for the task. They were taught English, German, and Italian, by being waited on by domestics who spoke these languages. They had workshops where they were taught turning, basket-making, weaving, and carpentry; and a garden, for instruction in botany and the properties of herbs. They all kept journals; that of the duc de Chartres has been published, and makes us acquainted with many interesting particulars of his early life.

In the Revolution, Louis-Philippe was a member of the Jacobin club, and was in almost daily attendance on the sittings of this tumultuous assembly. In 1792, war was declared against Austria, and the duc de Chartres made his first campaign. At the head of troops confided to him by Kellermann he fought at Valmy; and afterwards under Dumouriez at Jemmapes.

ii. **Misfortunes and Wanderings.** Soon after the execution of his father, Louis-Philippe and his friend, general Dumouriez [*Du-moo-rê-a*], were

cited to appear before the Committee of Public Safety; but, instead of obeying the summons, they fled to the Belgian Netherlands, at that time an appanage of the house of Austria, and thence, Louis-Philippe journeyed to Zurich, where he was joined by his sister Adelaïde and Madame de Genlis.

The French emigrants at Zurich, being hostile to the duc, on account of the part taken by his father in the condemnation of Louis XVI., rendered it inexpedient for him to remain there; so, placing the two ladies in a convent, he set out on his travels, with a knapsack on his back, accompanied by Baudin [*Bo-dah'n*], an attached servant.

He wandered through Switzerland on foot, often toilworn, and at last nearly penniless. When reduced to the last extremity, his friend Montesquion, procured him a situation as teacher in the academy of Richenau, conducted by M. Jost. Here, under the name of *Chabaud Latour*, he remained eight months, as a teacher of geography, history, French, English, and mathematics. It was while he was at this school, that he heard of the tragical death of his father Philippe, surnamed *Egalité*.

On quitting the village of Richenau in 1793, he was invited to take up his abode with M. Montesquion of Bremgarten, where he remained till the close of the year 1794, under the name of M. *Corby*. His retreat being discovered, he was once more compelled to wander. Under the name of Herr *Müller*, he now visited the north of Europe. Under the assumed character of a Dane, he set sail in the September of 1796 for North America; was joined by his brothers, Montpensier and Beaujolais; and remained in the New World till the beginning of 1800.

In February, 1800, he arrived with his two brothers in England, and all three took up their abode at Twickenham, on the banks of the Thames, where they enjoyed some of the best English society, and gained universal esteem. In 1807, the duc de Montpensier died, and was buried in Westminster Abbey; next year, died the comte de Beaujolais at Malta, whither Louis-Philippe had accompanied him.

On his return from Malta, the duc d'Orléans visited Sicily, and gained the affections of the princess Amelia, second daughter of the king of Naples, to whom he was married in 1809.

From 1814 to 1830. When Napoléon abdicated, Louis-Philippe and his family went to reside in Paris; but Napoléon's return to France broke up his arrangements again, and he sent his wife and child to England, while he himself took the command of the army of the north by the desire of Louis XVIII. He remained with the army till the beginning of 1815, when he gave up the command and joined his family at Twickenham. After the famous "Hundred Days" he returned to Paris, and took his seat in the Chamber of Peers; but his sentiments being too liberal for the administration of Louis XVIII., he again returned to Twickenham, where he continued to reside till 1817. Upon quitting Twickenham he lived in his country seat at Neuilly [*Ner-ye*], near Paris, till called upon by the nation to occupy the throne vacated by Charles X.

POLITICAL EVENTS IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS-PHILIPPE.

(1) **Crown of Belgium Refused** (17 February, 1831). At the dismemberment of the empire, Belgium vindicated her independence, and offered her crown to the duc de Nemours. The king thought it inexpedient to accede to this request, and the throne was conferred on Leopold of Saxe-Coburg.

Leopold had married the princess Charlotte of England, who left him a widower; and, in 1832, he married Louise, the eldest daughter of the Citizen-King.

(2) **Siege of Antwerp** (23 December, 1832). Antwerp revolted from the new kingdom of Belgium, but Louis-Philippe sent 50,000 men to take possession of the citadel, which was defended for three weeks by general Chassé the governor, and then surrendered.

The duc de Reichstadt, Napoléon's son, died in Austria 22nd July, 1832.

The Quadruple Alliance (22 April, 1834). After the fall of Napoléon in 1814, the Bourbons were restored to the throne of Spain, and a constitutional monarchy was established, called *the government of the Cortès*, which was abolished in 1823.

Ferdinand VII. being then absolute, abolished the Salic law of Spain, that his infant daughter Maria-Isabella might succeed him; and died in 1833, leaving his widow *Regent*.

At the death of Ferdinand, don Carlos, his brother, the rightful heir before the abolition of the Salic law, laid claim to the crown, and a long civil war ensued between the partisans of donna Maria and the supporters of her uncle.

In 1834, England, France, Spain, and Portugal, signed a quadruple alliance, for the purpose of restoring peace to the peninsular by putting down the Carlists.

General Espartero was put at the head of the queen's army, and, after many defeats, succeeded in driving the insurgents from the field. The queen dowager was deposed from the regency, which was entrusted to Espartero, who for six years governed the country with tolerable success (1840—1846).

(4) **Bombardment of St. John of Ulloa** (27 Nov. 1838).

The government of Mexico having offended the French government, the cabinet of the Tuileries sent five men-of-war to bombard the fort of St. John of Ulloa.

In four hours it was in ruins, and the Mexicans were obliged to surrender. Prince de Joinville took part in this enterprise, and greatly distinguished himself.

(5) **Wars in Algeria** (1827—1847). By far the most important event of the reign was the continuation of the African war to the final conquest of Algéria.

¶ The *cause* of this war was a dispute about the payment of £280,000, a debt incurred by France in the Egyptian expedition. Of this debt £180,000 had been paid, but the balance remained unsettled, till certain counter claims of the French could be adjusted. After a tedious delay of three years, Hussein, Dey of Algiers, the principal creditor, became impatient, and demanded immediate payment. To this demand no answer was vouchsafed; and the next

time the French consul presented himself at court, Hussein asked him, "Why his master had not replied to his letter?" The consul haughtily replied, "The king of France holds no correspondence with the Dey of Algiers;" upon which the governor struck him across the face, and fiercely abused the king.

An insult like this could not, of course, be overlooked; and a French squadron was sent to receive the consul on board, and revenge the insult. Algiers was bombarded; but it was not till three years afterwards that the governor capitulated, and the French took possession of the city.

It would be profitless to follow out the struggle which now commenced between the Kabyles and French invaders. The French certainly acted with wonderful indiscretion and tyranny, destroying mosques, abolishing old Turkish customs, confiscating private property, and imposing upon the Arab tribes French laws, institutions, and habits; so that the war assumed the complexion of a crusade, or struggle for the "true faith."

Province after province became alarmed, and determined to resist the "infidel invaders;" and a young emir, Abd-el-Kader, put himself at the head of his native tribes, and became the great rallying point of the Arabs for nearly 18 years.

After several skirmishes of doubtful issue, Abd-el-Kader consented to recognize the sovereignty of France, and received in recompense the government of Oran, Titeri, and part of Algiers; but he took the first opportunity of falling on the invaders, and almost succeeded in driving them out of the country.

In 1841, general Bugeaud [*Bu-zjo*] was sent to take the command of the African army; a brave inexorable man, who scrupled at nothing; treachery, bribery, or force, no matter, all were, in his opinion, justifiable in war.

Victory followed victory, and the Arabs on all sides were terrified into submission. Abd-el-Kader could no longer resist; he had lost everything; and retired into Morocco. Here he raised a new army, under the sanction of the sultan; was defeated; and carried on a desperate game for two or three years longer, when the sultan deserted him, and the brave emir was compelled to surrender (*Dec.* 1847).

The French government refused to ratify the conditions agreed to by General Lamoricière [*Lam-o-rê-ce-air*] to whom Abd-el-Kader handed his sword; and basely kept their brave enemy in prison for four years. Napoléon III. nobly released him, and assigned him Brussa for his future residence.

CAVES of DAHRA (20 June, 1845). An episode in the government of Bugeaud connected with M. Pélistier, afterwards duc de Malakoff, must here be mentioned.

In 1845, a revolt occurred in the district of Dahra. The insurgents, hotly pursued by colonel Pélistier, took refuge in some immense caves, and were ordered to surrender.

On their refusal, fascines were piled up at the mouth of the caves, and set fire to. Thrice did the colonel send to the insurgents a flag of truce, exhorting them to accept his terms, but they refused to leave their retreat. Pélissier now commanded the fascines to be kindled in earnest, and between 800 and 1000 human beings were either suffocated, or gored to death by the maddened cattle shut up with them in the caves.

When the report of this horrible act of cruelty reached Paris, marshal Soult, then minister of war, condemned the transaction as unmilitary and inhuman, and, although no positive vote of censure was passed upon the colonel, all unprejudiced persons endorse the opinion of marshal Soult. Nothing can justify, nothing can palliate, such a cold-blooded wholesale butchery. Pélissier died, 1864, in Algeria.

INSURRECTIONS IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS-PHILIPPE.

(1) Of **Lyons**. In November, 1831, a very formidable insurrection broke out in Lyons. The silk weavers rose *en masse*; formed barricades; and, carrying black banners, paraded the streets, which they infested till the 3rd December, when Marshal Soult arrived and restored the city to order.

(2) Of **Lyons and Paris** (1834). Not long afterwards, certain secret societies, such as the *Society of the Rights of Man*, and the *Society of Progress*, were formed. The government interdicted them by law, and their suppression produced one of the most formidable riots of French history.

For three days (9, 10, 11, *April*) Lyons was a scene of civil war. The workmen attacked the soldiers, and the most fearful atrocities were committed.

When the news of this *émeute* reached Paris, the members of the secret societies instantly organized an insurrection, and for three days (12, 13, 14 *April*), a dreadful carnage took place, especially in the street called *Transnonain*, where a host of persons of all ages and both sexes were brutally massacred even in their own houses.

(3) Of the **Duchess of Berry** (*June*, 1832). It will be remembered that the duc de Berry, second son of Charles X., was assassinated in 1820, and seven months afterwards, the duchess gave birth to a son, the duc de Bordeaux, in favour of whom Charles X. abdicated.

In 1832, the duchess, after undergoing numberless difficulties, reached la Vendée, where she tried to raise the populace in favour of her son; but, being arrested, was confined in the château de Blaye, where she gave birth to a daughter. This event filled her partisans with scorn, and utterly ruined her cause.

(4) **Bread Riots**. In 1847, the scarcity of food in the west and centre of France led to several riots. Granaries and store-houses were sacked, and vessels laden with corn seized by the insurgents. Bodies of workmen perambulated the country demanding bread and work; houses were broken into; and peaceful citizens kept in constant alarm.

Government increased the army, and put some of the ringleaders to death; but it was plain that a feeling of discontent was diffusing itself; and the nation was fast ripening to another revolution.

Saint-Simoniens (1833). A *comte de St. Simon*, in this reign, founded a school called the *Industrialist*, for the amelioration of the people. At his death, in 1825, his disciples, called *St. Simoniens*, departing from the principles of their founder, became a sort of French *Socialists*, proclaiming the absolute equality of man and woman, the community of property, the abolition of marriage, and the establishment of a new religion of their own concocting. This pernicious society was dissolved by law in 1833.

ATTEMPTS ON THE LIFE OF LOUIS-PHILIPPE.

Fieschi. In 1835, Louis-Philippe resolved to commemorate the anniversary of the Revolution by a grand procession; and, at ten in the morning, on the 28th of July, mounted his horse, and started from the Tuileries, accompanied by his three sons (the dukes of Orleans, Nemours, and Joinville), the ministers of the crown, and a host of state functionaries.

On one side of the cortège rode the troops, on the other the legions of the National Guard; and the whole route was thronged with spectators.

At mid-day, the procession arrived at the *boulevard du Temple*, where the king halted, to receive a petition from the National Guard. A loud report, as of a cannon, startled the crowd; 18 persons dropped down dead, and 22 others, amongst whom was the king's eldest son, was wounded. An "infernal machine" had been fired at the king, but had missed its aim; and Louis-Philippe, with the greatest *sang-froid*, continued his march.

The author of this attempt was a Corsican, named Joseph Fieschi, who was arrested. The machine was found to consist of 25 barrels placed horizontally, all of which were fired at once.

This horrible attempt filled Paris with consternation. Fieschi and two of his accomplices were arrested and condemned to death. The motive alleged for this assault was, that Fieschi had been employed as a gardener by the government, but had been turned out of his place for misconduct.

In 1832, Bergeron had attempted the life of the king, but was acquitted.

Alibund (25 June, 1836). Twelve months afterwards, another murderous attempt was made on the citizen king. The assassin this time was a young Frenchman, named Louis Alibund, who employed for his purpose a walking-stick-gun, which he discharged in the royal carriage, while the king was passing from the Tuileries to Neuilly [*Ner-ye*]. He missed his aim; was arrested; and guillotined.

Four times more in less than 10 years his life was attempted: On the 27th Dec., by *Meunier*; the 22nd October, 1840, by Darmès [*Dar-ma'*]; the 16th April, 1846, by Lecomte [*La-cont'*]; and the 29th July, the same year, by Joseph Henri, a lunatic, who concealed himself behind one of the statues in the Tuileries, and fired at him with a pocket pistol.

REVOLUTION OF FEBRUARY, 1848.

Eighteen years had elapsed since the Revolution of July, which overthrew the Bourbon dynasty, in the person of Charles X., and now another broke out, and overthrew the Orléans dynasty.

In the former, there was a plausible cause of complaint, and an intelligible object to attain. Constitutional rights had been invaded, and were to be defended; but in the present, there was no such justification to be pleaded. It arose purely from a spirit of discontent, and contempt for the existing government.

Seven times, between 1832 and 1846, was Louis-Philippe fired at, and riot after riot had broken out in various parts of the kingdom, for the purpose of dethroning the "king of the barricades," and restoring the republic.

In 1847, many things occurred to increase the public discontent: The revenue was deficient; the previous harvest had been a failure; trade was very bad; the price of provisions was exorbitant; several ministers had been proved guilty of bribery; and the republicans cried out that the whole system of society was rotten to its base.

Reform banquets were resorted to for the expression of public opinion; and, in these banquets, inflammatory speeches kept alive the popular discontent, and provoked the people to "vindicate their rights."

At length, in the month of January, 1848, it was proposed to hold a banquet in a private house. The government interfered and prohibited it, under the plea that "such meetings fan hostile passions into a flame."

In spite of this prohibition, early in the morning of the day appointed, the students of the schools of law and medicine, to the number of 1800, formed themselves into files, and marched to the house of Odillon Barrot [*Bar-ro*], a deputy favourable to the banquet.

They marched along singing the *Marseillaise* and the Girondist song of *Mourir pour la patrie*. Hundreds of workmen joined the procession, so that the numbers became really formidable.

The same day, Mon. Barrot [*Bar-ro*], in the Chamber of Deputies, impeached the ministers of having violated the constitution in forbidding the banquet. The motion was deferred for a few days.

By sun-fall, the whole city was in commotion. Lamps and windows were broken; the posts of the Octroi were forced; barricades were thrown up; the municipal guard was attacked; the chairs in the Champs Elysées were burnt; and the military, in great numbers, paraded the streets to restore order.

The 23rd of February. Early in the morning of the 23rd, crowds of people assembled in the eastern Boulevards; overpowered

the military; and seized their muskets. The National Guard, consisting of 85,000 rate-payers, was called out, and commanded to interfere wherever fighting was going on; but their sympathies were so wholly with the insurgents, that the military was more hampered than aided by their interference. The universal cry, from one end of Paris to the other, was *Down with Guizot! Reform for ever! Down with the Ministers!*

The king was perplexed, but Guizot advised him to call a new ministry; and, by four o'clock in the afternoon, it was announced that Guizot had resigned, and that Mon. Thiers had been authorized to form a fresh cabinet.

The news was received with great applause; but vast masses of workmen, carrying red flags, assembled before Guizot's house, yelling like maniacs, shouting at the top of their voice, and singing revolutionary songs. Presently, a musket was fired from the crowd, and the soldiers who guarded the minister's house, irritated thereat, discharged a volley on the mob.

The rage of the rioters was now unbounded. A ferocious shout of *vengeance*, uttered with that peculiar emphasis which only Frenchmen can give, rose on all sides. Between 60 and 70 persons had been shot, and their dead bodies, laid on carts, were paraded through the city by torch-light. The deep yell, the ghastly glare of torches, the diabolical looks of vengeance, the groans of the wounded, and the presence of the dead, made a spectacle most frightful and unearthly. By midnight the whole city was astir, seeking guns or other weapons, and constructing barricades, against the morrow.

Abdication (24 Feb., 1848). Next morning, the king had a review in the *Place du Carrousel*, a large open square near the palace, but all the approaches to the Tuileries were beset by armed multitudes.

The National Guard had openly joined the insurgents, so the Municipal Guard consisting of old soldiers was called out, and made themselves extremely obnoxious to the people.

Before the Palais-Royal a serious collision took place. Shots were fired on both sides. At last, a quantity of straw was heaped round the soldiers, and set fire to. Several of the Municipal Guard were suffocated or burnt to death, and numbers were killed in attempting to escape. This was the most serious affray of the three days.

When this horrible incident was told to the king, he voluntarily signed his abdication in favour of his grandson, the comte de Paris; but it was too late. The mad passions of the people were excited to frenzy; multitudes pressed towards the Tuileries, and fired at the windows.

The king, queen, duchess of Nemours, and children, escaped by an underground passage; entered two plain coaches, each drawn by a

single horse; and drove furiously away in the direction of St. Cloud [*San Cloo*].

It was 17½ years since Louis-Philippe had been installed, amidst popular acclamations, "king of the French." His favourite minister, Mon. Guizot, escaped in disguise, and followed the king to England, where he long remained in exile.

Scarcely were the king and his family gone, when the mob and National Guard rushed into the palace, threw out of the windows the furniture, destroyed everything on which they could lay their hands, and burnt the throne in the Place du Carrousel.

Duchess of Orleans and the **Deputies** (24th February, 1848). While the Tuileries were being pillaged, the duchess of Orléans, with her two sons and the duc de Nemours,* was crossing the bridge leading to the Chamber of Deputies.

They were soon after introduced into the hall, and accommodated with seats. Great agitation prevailed in the assembly.

Mon. Dupin announced to the house that the king had abdicated in favour of his grandson the comte de Paris, and had appointed the duchess of Orléans regent.

Then followed a most stormy discussion; some approving of the appointment; others declaring for a republic; others again voting for the duc de Nemours; and others clamouring for a provisional government.

At length rose Mon. de la Rochejaquelein, and said: "Gentlemen, this day you are nothing, absolutely nothing. Your chamber is no longer a house!"

At this moment, a crowd of armed men rushed into the hall, shouting: *No regency! no royalty! the Republic for ever!* The president put on his hat, and pronounced the sittings at a close.

The uproar was indescribable. Deputy after deputy rose to speak; but the mob continued shouting: *No more Bourbons! Down with the national traitors! No regency! The Republic for ever!*

The duchess of Orléans and her children made their way out with the duc de Nemours; and many of the deputies left at the same time.

At length, after three hours' shouting, menacing, noises of various sorts, and confusion worse confounded by fruitless cries of *Silence! Order! Yes! No! Hear!* and marks of disapproval, a provisional government was named. Thus ended the last sitting of the Chamber of Deputies at the palace Bourbon.

* The duchess of Orléans was a widow. Her husband, Ferdinand-Philippe, eldest son of the king, died in 1842. Her two sons are the comte de Paris and the duc de Chartres.

The duc de Nemours (Louis-Charles) was the second son, but fourth child of the king. His children are comte d'Eu, duc d'Alençon, and Marguerite d'Orléans.

The provisional governors, eleven in number, held their meetings in the Hôtel-de-Ville, that old centre of Parisian democracy.

Night and day the members sat, on the 25th and 26th of February, consulting, decreeing, issuing proclamations, receiving deputations, and trying to legislate amidst shouts, trampling of feet, a Babel of voices, and a still worse Babel of impossible demands.

Mon. Lamartine was almost the only person who had any influence with the mob ; and he was generally listened to with approbation.

One of the best measures suggested by him, for the restoration of order, was the enrolment of a new corps, called the *Garde Mobile*, consisting of the most turbulent young men of the working classes. By this *ruse* he converted the most disorderly into a band whose duty and pride were to preserve order. The Municipal Guard was dissolved, and the regular troops withdrawn.

¶ The chief feature of the Revolution of July was its resistance to the principle which had been struggling into life for the last 15 years, I mean the *legitimacy of the divine right*, or in other words the law of succession by *birth*.

France, in chasing Charles X. from her shores, virtually said : "There are no legitimacies but such as it pleases me to create. I recognize no right but the right of the nation to appoint its own governors and government."

The proper step, after the abdication of Charles, would have been an appeal to the people to choose their own government and appoint their own rulers ; but, instead of this natural proceeding, the crown was given to Louis-Philippe, and a new royalty created which professed to represent both the *divine right* and the *national right*, but which, in reality, possessed neither the prestige of the one nor the strength of the other.

The reign of the citizen-king was a trial of royalty based on republican principles ; and the first act of the new king was an electoral law, which recognized money as the standard of worth, and reduced 30 millions of citizens to the condition of Helots. The aristocracy of France, in the reign of Louis-Philippe, was that of money, and money only.

FAMILY AFFAIRS OF LOUIS-PHILIPPE.

(1) **Marriage of Duc d'Orleans.** In the spring of 1837 the duc d'Orléans, heir apparent to the throne, married the princess Helena of Mecklenburg, who, the following year, gave birth to a son, called the comte de Paris.

(2) **Death of Princess Marie.** In 1839, the king lost his beloved daughter Marie, wife of the duke of Würtemberg. She was only 26 years old, and had been married less than two years.

(3) **Death of duc d'Orleans** (13th July, 1842). Three years after the death of the princess Marie, the duke of Orleans was thrown out of his carriage, and killed. He left Paris in the forenoon in a light open carriage, with a postilion, intending to take leave of the royal family at Neuilly [*Ner-ye*] before proceeding to the camp of St. Omer [*Sant O-mair'*]. As he approached the *Porte Maillot* [*My'-yo*], his horses took fright; the postilion lost all command over them; the duke jumped from the carriage; and his spurs getting entangled in his cloak, he was thrown upon his head, and died the same day.

Immediately after the accident, the young prince was taken to the house of a grocer; the site of which house, with some adjoining property, was purchased by the king for a chapel to St. Ferdinand. The altar on the left contains a group in marble representing the duke on his death-bed; and what renders the group still more interesting, is the *angel* kneeling at the head of the deceased in earnest supplication, the work of his sister Marie. Little did she think when she was carving this beautiful spirit, for whose tomb it was destined!

The duke of Orleans was greatly beloved. He was brave, generous, affable, the friend of progress, and a patron of the arts. His death was felt deeply by the nation; and none can tell how intensely by the royal parents.

Marriage of Duc de Montpensier (10th October, 1846). All the princes of France, except the youngest, had married into royal houses: Thus the duc d'Orléans had married the princess Heléna of Mecklenburg; the duc de Nemours, the princess Victoria of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha; the prince de Joinville, a sister of the emperor of Brazil; the duc d'Aumale, Maria princess of Salerno; one only, the duc de Montpensier, remained unmarried, and he desired to ally himself with the house of Spain.

Lord Palmerston was then premier of England, and M. Guizot of France. The English minister expostulated against this alliance, as contrary to the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), which distinctly stipulated that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united under one sovereign.

Notwithstanding the opposition of England, the marriage took place; and, on the 10th of October, 1846, the duc de Montpensier led to the altar Louisa de Bourbon, infanta of Spain, and sister of Isabella the reigning queen. This proceeding separated the courts of England and France, and gave great offence to the British nation.

The year previously (1845), Queen Victoria had made a private visit to Louis-Philippe at Eu, and in the October of the same year, the king visited the queen at Windsor. These were not visits of state, like those of 1855.

Death of Louis-Philippe (26th August, 1850). Louis-Philippe died at Claremont, in the vicinity of London, whither he had retired after his abdication. He was 77 years of age, and had been an exile in England for thirteen years.

No man, at least of modern times, had experienced so many vicissitudes of fortune. Heir of one of the most opulent families of Europe, he was at one time almost destitute of the common necessities of life. An outcast and an exile, he was raised to the throne of France. And when a king with almost unlimited power, he was forced from his throne to die a fugitive in a strange land.

His Character. He was by nature gentle and straightforward ; studious, thoughtful, well-informed, deeply read in history, diplomatic, indefatigable, and free of speech ; but he was avaricious, deficient in energy, and wholly without dignity.

In private life, he was irreproachable : A good husband, a kind and judicious father, and of a humane disposition ; but excessively vain and garrulous. He would never allow himself to be in the wrong, and was perpetually accusing the world of ingratitude and neglect.

His reign forms an epoch in French history, begun and ended by a revolution. Arts flourished, manufactures increased, industry was encouraged, and the peace of Europe was uninterrupted.

His Policy. His great and fatal mistake was his ambition to *govern*, as well as reign ; to be minister, as well as king ; and his chief aim was to consolidate his own dynasty, to accomplish which he stooped to the most huckstering policy.

He was a lover of peace, no doubt ; but the motive was not aversion to war, so much as a fear that war would endanger his dynasty. He cared, indeed, less for the honour of his people than for the aggrandizement of his family.

It was this that lost him the alliance of England. It was basing his aristocracy on money, that introduced the corruption which so eminently disgraced the ministers of this reign. It was his hoarding, trafficking, and hungering for wealth, that taught his people a reckless speculation hitherto unknown in France.

Conceiving that his success in life was due to his own merits, Louis-Philippe was dogmatical, obstinate, and overbearing in the extreme. His "experience" was his favourite topic ; and when any one ventured to differ from him, he put him down with the vaunting reproof of, "my experience is greater than yours."

His Monuments. The exposition of the products of French industry was created by the "citizen king." The Column of July and that of Boulogne were built in his reign ; the Arc de Triomphe, the superb Madeleine, Nôtre-Dame-de-Lorette, St. Vincent-de-Paul,

and the beautiful Hôtel-de-Ville, were either commenced or finished in the same reign.

The palace of Versailles was converted into an historical museum, sacred to the glories of France. The fortifications of Paris were constructed. And railroads were introduced.

In 1840, the relations between England and France were somewhat cool. M. Thiers, who was chief minister, hinted at the possibility of a rupture, and wished France to side with Egypt against England and the Sublime Porte. Louis-Philippe availed himself of the popular effervescence, which then existed, to persuade the chambers to *fortify Paris*, and in less than three years the work was completed.

HISTORY OF THE FRENCH DRAMA (concluded from page 237).

PART IV. THE ROMANTIC OR GENRE SCHOOL.

Tragedy. Till the time of Voltaire, the successors of Corneille and Racine had been content to imitate their great models. Crébillon (1674—1762) imitated Corneille in the terrible, but his "terrible" was harrowing, and not unfrequently atrocious. Campristron (1656—1723) emulated Racine; but had neither the invention nor poetic force of his great original.

Voltaire (1694—1778), possessed of an active and ingenious spirit, cut out a path for himself; but was too timid to attempt any bold innovations. He did not, however, hesitate to infringe the classic "Unities," and to substitute a proper national costume for the conventional stage dresses of the Louis *quatorze* pattern, hitherto universally adopted.

He fancied he had done more. He boasted that he had made his Romans speak as well as dress like Romans, and his Greeks like Greeks; but this was mere vanity and self-delusion. His heroes are as much Frenchmen as those of the painter David. His turbaned Ottoman is no Turk, but thinks and speaks like a Parisian; so do his savage chief and silken Chinese. Nevertheless his tragedies are of a high order; and several of them still keep possession of the stage.

Voltaire and Ducis prepared the way for Lamerrier, Victor Hugo, and Alexandre Dumas, the chief exponents of the *Romantic School*, which has sought to free the stage from the Aristotelian shackles, and to introduce the English, Spanish, and German freedom. Their efforts at first met with the severest opposition. Delavigne has attempted to reconcile the ancient *Classic* and modern *Romantic* schools, by making each concede a little; and young France seems inclined to favour the compromise. The present most acceptable dramas may be termed *Classico-Romantic*.

Lamerrier (1772—1840) possessed singular boldness and originality. He has detached passages equal in beauty to any thing in the language; but others are so bizarre, that they border on the ridiculous. His best drama is *Agamemnon*.

Victor Hugo (1802—) who succeeded Lamerrier in the Academy, set himself, far more boldly than any previous author, to demolish the unnatural dramatic system of his country.

In 1827, he brought out his *Cromwell*, in which he fearlessly infringed the Aristotelian unities; but his attempt did not succeed. Nothing daunted, in 1830, he produced his *Ernani*. The indignation of the old school and the enthusiasm of the new ran beyond all bounds. The theatre was in an uproar; many went even to blows.

The Academy laid a formal complaint before the king; but Charles X. with singular good sense, replied, that "in matters of taste the opinion of a monarch is no better than that of other men."

His other dramas are *Marion Delorme*, *Lucretia Borgia*, *Mary Tudor*, *Angelo*, *Ruy Blas*, *Le Roi s'amuse*, &c.

Alexandre Dumas (1803—1870), the novelist, first roused the attention of France, by his historical drama of *Henri III.*, which made its appearance while the contest between *Classicism* and *Romanticism* was still raging. It was hailed by the new school with unbounded delight, and pronounced to be the trophy of their undoubted victory.

Casimir Delavigne (1793—1843), represents the golden mean of the French Parnassus, the half-classic and half-romantic school. There is nothing extravagant, nothing profound about him, but he is just the man to please and not offend. His principal tragedies are the *Sicilian Vespers*, *Cid's Daughter*, *Marino Faliëri*, *Louis XI.*, and the *Children of Edward*.

Comedy. A few years prior to the Great Revolution, and while the causes of that event were still seething and ready to boil over, Beaumarchais brought out his *Marriage of Figaro*, at once a comedy of intrigue and political satire. It was received with tumultuous enthusiasm, which nothing but its novelty, its persecution by the king, and its political inuendos can account for.

With few exceptions, French comedy, since the great epoch of Molière, has dwindled down to farce, comic opera, vaudeville, and what is called "variety," a flimsy grotesque plot, borne out by comic dialogue and acting.

Dancourt (1661—1726) is one of the best farce writers of France, but he too often outrages decency.

Picard (1769—1828), composed 48 vaudevilles, comic operas, and light comedies. His humour is genuine, his dialogues bright and witty, and his plots excellent.

Of modern and living authors in this department of letters the most popular are Victor Hugo, Bayard, and Brunet. Scribe, the prolific writer of librettos, such as *Massaniello*, *Fra Diavolo*, *The Crown Diamonds*, &c., &c., died in 1862.

POETRY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

The literature of the 18th and 19th centuries in France is more distinguished for its prose than poetry.

At the close of the 18th century, ST. LAMBERT and DELILLE introduced descriptive poetry, brought into vogue by Thomson's *Seasons*. And various attempts have been made at the Epic, but wholly without success.*

During the Revolution, CHENIER and LEBRUN obtained to themselves a name by their revolutionary songs. Those of the former were sung on all the great festivals. The latter was preposterously called by his contemporaries, the *Pindar* of France.

In the first empire, poetry was almost silent; but with the restoration rose the *Romantic School*, the growth of the Revolution; a school which repudiates both in theory and practice, the classic affectations which had for several years infected both poetry, drawing, and every thing else that depended upon taste.

In regard to the quality of the poetry produced by the present school, there is much diversity of opinion. Those who admire vehement thoughts and fiery

* "Les Français," said Voltaire, "n'ont pas la tête épique," and the attempts already made, his own among the number, corroborate his words. The principal Epics in the language are:—

The *Philippide*, by Guillaume de Breton (1165—1220).

" *Franciade*, by Ronsard (1524—1585).

" *Creation*, by Du Bartas (1544—1590).

" *Maid of Orleans* (la Pucelle), by Chapelain (1594—1674).

St. Louis, by Lemoyne (1602—1671).

The *Henriade*, by Voltaire (1694—1778).

To which may be added *Telemachus*, the prose epic by Fénelon, and the only one likely to endure.

declamation, will allow much merit to Victor Hugo and Delavigne [*Du-lar-vene*], others will feel inclined to doubt whether posterity will judge them so admiringly as many of their contemporaries.

It must be allowed that the poetry of **Victor-Hugo** is extremely unequal. Sometimes he is extravagant to bombast, and sometimes even *bizarre*; but there are detached poems and passages in which he exhibits a rare mastery of language, and much poetical imagination.

Certainly, he is one of the most distinguished of French writers, and stands at the head of the *Romanticists*. His novels are unsurpassed, especially his *Nôtre-Dame de Paris*. His prose poem *Les Misérables*, exhibits great keenness of analysis, passionate dramatic force, and splendour of sentiment. As a lyric poet he has no equal in the language, and few short poems in any modern European tongue can be compared to his *Nero's Feast* (*Chant de Fête de Neron*). [As a prose writer, see p. 431.]

¶ The genius of Delavigne derives its inspiration from patriotic sentiments; and has found vent in many noble lyrics. Of these *Parthenopë* and *The Dog of the Louvre* may be cited as noble examples.

¶ Alfred de VIGNY [*Veen-ye*], a poet somewhat less known to English readers, has gained considerable popularity in Paris, and not undeservedly, for his poem entitled *The Frigate "Serieuse,"* which shows a pathetic earnestness very rarely to be found.

¶ Auguste **Barbier** also deserves mention on account of his energy and descriptive powers.

But the names which are most conspicuous in modern French poetry, and which will hereafter be most intimately associated with the literature of the 19th century are those of Lamartine and Béranger.

Lamartine (1790—1869). It has been the lot of Lamartine to occupy a conspicuous position in two characters, usually thought irreconcilable: that of a poet, and that of a politician; but his disastrous failure in the latter capacity leads us to regret that he has not devoted himself exclusively to literature. In his poetry, there is a stateliness and a sustained gravity, which reaches at times to the sublime. Very melodious in his verse, he has succeeded in producing harmonies of which the French language seemed incapable.

French, admirably adapted for conversation, brilliant repartée, wit, and all the lighter graces of diction, was supposed to be unfitted for oratorical use, till Bossuet and Massillon, by their magnificent discourses, dispelled the notion. In like manner, Lamartine has shown that it is possible so to wield the language, as to raise it to the sublime.

Lamartine may be compared to Wordsworth in the quality and tone of his mind. The solidity, magniloquence, and reflective tendencies of the one, are conspicuous in the other; so also are the occasional tediousness, egotism, and pomposity.

Lamartine never divorces his subject from himself, and hence wearies us after a time. We admire the man, approve his sentiments, appreciate his diction, but wish he would sometimes forget Lamartine, and show us some one else.

In 1820 he published his *Poetic Meditations*, 45,000 of which were sold in a very short time. His next work of the same class was *Poetic Harmonies*.

His *History of the Girondists*, together with the *History of the Last Ten Years*, by Louis Blanc, contributed greatly to shake the throne of the barricades.

His last works are *History of the Revolution*, and *Lives of Men who have Advanced the Progress of Science*.

N.B. His proper name is Prat. He married an English Lady of fortune.

Béranger (1780—1857). The greatest of all is Béranger, the *Horace* of France, and not unworthy to be compared with his Roman brother. While

he has selected the simplest and most universal feelings, the most familiar sentiments and images, and the most trite truisms, he has, by his tact and skill, invested them with quite an original character.

The oftener a thought has occurred to others, so much the better, for it is an evidence of its truth, and of its power on the heart. What Béranger has done, was not to create the thought, but to clothe it; to make it familiar; to give it colour and form; so that it looks like an old acquaintance vastly improved.

His originality lies in his application of the idea, and the point with which the image is brought out.

Few poets have ever equalled him in this department. What Burns was to Scotland, Béranger is to France. Both seized upon the popular feeling, and treated it as it ought to be treated. Both were possessed of the same manliness of spirit and sound common sense. Both were singularly independent in spirit, and hated everything hypocritical or mean. Strong in his Napoleonic tendencies, to his ballads and soul-stirring ditties, the emperor Napoleon III. owed in no small measure his elevation. No poet, perhaps, since the beginning of the world, has exercised such a power over the destiny of a nation as the poet of St. Honoré.

His songs were immensely popular during the republic, but Louis XVIII. and Charles X. had the bad taste to throw him into prison for his freedom of ideas, and keep him there, one for three months, and the other for nine. Louis-Philippe had no more love for the poets than his bigoted predecessors.

HISTORY OF FRENCH PAINTING (concluded from page 350).

PART III. THE GENRE, ECLECTIC, AND ROMANTIC SCHOOLS.

As the Republic faded away, the political change was reflected in French art. The passion for everything Greek passed away, and a more natural taste was introduced. Now came the time when the wars of the empire were commemorated. When shakos and bear-skins replaced the antique helmet and cap of liberty; and the vivid aspect of reality breathed from the canvas, and put to shame the absurd abstractions of David [*Dav-e-de*] and his school.

Carle **Vernet*** (1758—1836), who excelled in horses, laid the foundation of the new school, and won the hearts of all Frenchmen by representing on canvas the battles in which they had taken part: such as *Rivoli*, *Marengo*, *Austerlitz*, and *Wagram*.

Horace **Vernet** (1789—1863) is no less celebrated than his father. The *Taking of Constantine*, *Massacre of the Mamelukes*, and *Surprise of the Smalah of Abd-el-Kader* are large paintings of considerable merit, especially for graphic grouping and correctness of costume. His other battle scenes are *Tolosa*, *Jemmapes*, *Jena*, *Friedland*, and *Fontenoy*.

¶ Paul **Delaroche** (1797—1856), the founder and best exponent of the modern "Eclectic School," has few equals in colour, delicacy of treatment, picturesqueness of design, and accuracy of drawing. He has endeavoured with considerable success to unite the living truth of the *Romantic* with the dignity of the *Classic* school. His chief defects are want of fire and grandeur.

Compare his *Napoleon Crossing the Alps* with the conventional horse and rider of David, and the beauty of truth will be most palpable. His *Death of the duc de Guise* is a fine dramatic painting: The large chamber compared with the small figures, the prostrate body and bed on one side, the great space between them, and the group of skulking assassins, are all admirably conceived.

* Claude Joseph Vernet (1714—1789), father of Carle, was the best *marine* painter, and was employed by Louis XV. to paint the principal sea-ports of France. His best productions, however, are *Evening* and the *Tempest*. Almost all his paintings are in the Louvre.

The following are also universally known, at least from engravings: *Napoleon at Fontainebleau*; *Richelieu Sailing up the Rhône*; *Death of Mazarin*; *Execution of Lady Jane Grey*; *Stafford Going to Execution*; *The Princes in the Tower*; *Cromwell Contemplating the Body of Charles I.*, one of the finest historic paintings of modern times; *Marie-Antoinette before the Tribunal*; *Moses Exposed*; *Jesus in the Garden*; *The Hemicycle*, which contains 74 figures; &c.

¶ Last of all came **Robert** (1793—1825), one of the most talented painters of France, who forsook the pomp of war for the simple and beautiful in nature, devoting his energies to the reproduction of the most striking passages of ordinary life in Italy. He produced many paintings of extraordinary merit.

Greuze (1726—1805) may be placed in the same school. His best pictures are the *Father of a Family Explaining the Bible to his Children*; *The Beloved Mother*; *Child and her Dog*; *First Sorrow* (a little girl lamenting the death of her pet bird); and the *Village Bride*.

Gericault (1791—1824) was in reality the first to abandon the art of David. His *Wreck of the Medusa* is a prodigy of dramatic power, forcible, effective, and worthy of all praise. Nothing had hitherto been produced in France so natural in drawing, so modest in expression, and so faultless in conception.

Next followed **Delacroix**, **Hersent**, and **Prudhon**. The first admired for his *Dantë and Virgil in Charon's boat*, now in the Luxembourg. The second for his *Boaz and Ruth*. And the third for his *Poor Family*, which gave a final blow to the heartless extravagance of the Revolutionary School.

Delacroix is called the *Paul Veronese*, and sometimes the *Rubens* of France. His colouring is superb, but his drawing very incorrect.

Scheffer (1795—1858), German by descent, Dutch by birth, and French by education, followed in the same wake. He was essentially a poet-painter, and has left behind many works of European fame.

His *Defence of Missalonghi* strikes with a master's hand the chords of our sympathy. The scene is horrible, but by no means revolting.

His nine pictures from Goethe's *Faust*, are the finest illustrations ever produced; especially *Faust in his Study*, *Margaret at the Wheel*, and (which is the finest of all) *Margaret Tempted in the Church*.

His master-work, however, is *Paolo and Francesca*. Next to which comes *Dantë and Beatrice*. Of his religious subjects the *Agony in the Garden* is the best.

The great excellency of Ary Scheffer's pictures is character, to which every thing is subordinate. There is a grandeur even in the least of his works, but his accessories, such as landscape, foreground, sky, and so on, are poor; and there is a constant repetition of the same models in his different pictures.

CELEBRITIES, NOT POETS OR PAINTERS.

Chateaubriand (1769—1848), one of the most distinguished of French writers, was the author of *The Martyrs*, the *Genius of Christianity*, and the *Itinerary from Paris to Jerusalem*. The first of these, with the *Corinne* of Madame de Staël, were the first works to produce the reaction which succeeded the literary torpor of the Convention and Directory. The second was received with an enthusiasm almost without parallel in literature. The third is brilliant and interesting.

Chateaubriand lived for several years in England in great poverty, but, in 1800, returned to Paris, and published his first tale, *Atala* or the love of two savages in the desert, which brought him into immediate notice. Though Bonaparte greatly patronized him, yet, on the execution of the duc d'Enghien, he left France in disgust, and commenced his pilgrimage to the Holy Land.

After the battle of Waterloo, he returned to Paris, and was promoted to the peerage; and, in 1822, he was appointed ambassador-extraordinary to the British court.

Sismondi (1773—1842), historian, passed many years in England and Tuscany during the French revolution. His great work is a *History of the Italian Republics*. His *History of the French* shows great learning, but is not impartial. In England he is best known for his work entitled *Literature of Europe*.

Victor Cousin (1792—1867), the founder of systematic *eclecticism* in modern philosophy, has so disappeared from public life since the abdication of Louis-Philippe, that no better place than the present can be found for a brief notice of him.

He began his career as an exponent of Scotch metaphysicians, but became subsequently a disciple of the German speculative systems.

His lectures drew forth all the finest qualities of his great genius, and never since the days of Abélard were such audiences gathered together, as those which attended his noble expositions. For lucidity and beauty of style he has no equal but Plato. For co-ordinating the facts of history and philosophy so as to make each illustrate the other, he stands wholly without equal. His works are numerous.

SECOND REPUBLIC (1848 to 1870).

Republic proclaimed. On the 26th of February, 1848, all the newspapers of Paris announced to France the proclamation of the Republic. Not that this form of government was generally popular; it was accepted rather as a necessity.

The same day, M. Lamartine, Minister of Foreign Affairs, sent a circular to each member of the diplomatic corps to assure them that the intentions of the new government were based on the treaties of 1815.

Lamartine's Harangue. Next day, a formidable insurrection broke out, which threatened to subvert everything. The people accused the provisional government of treason to the common cause. A rumour prevailed that a regency was about to be appointed, and bands of men promenaded the streets, and assembled, at length, to the amount of 30,000, before the Hôtel-de-Ville and its environs.

Groans were heard on all sides. Guns were fired, stones hurled, windows broken, and the disorder became truly formidable. Lamartine showed himself at an upper window of the building, and there, in the face of fire-arms and missiles, addressed the stormy multitude, and calmed their fury. It was the triumph of moral force over physical rage—a triumph to be proud of—the crown and glory of his political life.

Provisional Government. The great difficulty of the provisional government was to find profitable employment for the Paris workmen. These were the men who had effected the revolution, and had to be coaxed into good temper.

In the hope of flattering these turbulent spirits, the government headed their proclamations with the absurd motto: "**Liberty, Equality, Fraternity;**" and appointed Louis-Blanc and a common mechanic president and vice-president of a commission to advise upon the subject. This commission organized the mad scheme of public workshops.

Some of its other acts were less objectionable: It abolished titles of nobility, political oaths of allegiance, imprisonment for debt, and the punishment of death. It emancipated the slaves of the French colonies; and proclaimed full liberty of religious worship.

Another attempt was made to revive the ridiculous style of address introduced in the first revolution, *Citizen So-and-so* (see p. 307).

National Workshops were organized in various parts of the metropolis, for the employment of workmen out of work, that they might not band together for mischief; but the very nostrum provided proved the ruin of the new republic.

Government undertook to pay every one who had work given him 20 pence a day, and those who did not choose to work, or could not be employed, a shilling. It was soon found that the workshops were crowded to overflowing.* No means of employment could be devised to occupy a tithe of the applicants. A host of idle hands had to be paid daily from the public funds; and even those employed were set to profitless tasks, such as levelling the Champ-de-Mars [*Sharnd-Mars*], digging up the Champs-Élysées [*Sharns A-lee-zay*], repairing roads and streets, making uniforms and accoutrements for the *Garde Mobile* and so on.

National Assembly. The provisional government fixed on the 4th of May (1848) for the reunion of the National Assembly, for the purpose of framing another *new constitution* for France. The Palace Bourbon was now again christened the *Legislative Palace*, and again fixed upon as the place of assembly.

The house was to consist of 900 Members. Every Frenchman who had attained to the age of 21 had a vote, and if four years older might be elected a deputy. Each deputy received a stipend of 20 shillings a day.

Immediately after the election, the provisional government resigned its powers into the hands of the Assembly, whose very first act was to decree the perpetual banishment of Louis-Philippe and his whole family.

The Executive. From the abdication of Louis-Philippe to the 15th of May, the principal persons in the government were Lamartine, Ledru-Rollin [*Lēdrū Rolah'n*], and Louis-Blanc. The first acted as

* 115,000 men applied for work at these *Ateliers Nationaux*, and the expense was £40,000 per week.

conciliator and moderator between the discordant elements of the time. The second represented the Jacobins or Red-Republican party. And the third was the organ of the Socialists.

In the meantime, general Cavaignac [*Car-van-yak*] was sent for from Algeria; arrived on the 18th of May; was appointed Minister of War; and soon became the chief of the executive.

Insurrection of June (23, 24, 25). The National Assembly decided, at length, to put an end to the national workshops, which had become a focus for the idle, and the nursery of rebellion. It was then that the insurrection, which had long been threatening, burst forth like a volcano.

On the 23rd of June, some 10,000 men in blouses assembled on the Place du Panthéon to attack the palace of the Luxembourg. The insurrection was not like that of July, a struggle for political rights nor like that of February, a demonstration against an unpopular ruler, but a war against society, against property, against law. Its object was pillage, and anarchy its thews and sinews.

At ten in the morning, a cry was heard from one end of Paris to the other, *To arms! To arms!* The faubourgs, the streets, the whole city was in movement; barricades were cast up with wonderful rapidity; the streets were suffocated with the turbulent and ill-disposed.

Cavaignac [*Car-van-yak*], commander of the National Guard, Garde Mobile, and regular army, went forth to restore order, and the fight began. Blood flowed on both sides; the wounded fell; the number of slain increased every hour; and the rage of the combatants was without restraint.

On the third of these terrible days, **Affre**, archbishop of Paris, resolved to make an attempt to quell the insurrection; and walking, with a palm-branch in his hand, into the troubled streets, mounted a barricade, and exhorted the people to peace. A ball from a window struck him, and the apostle of peace fell lifeless on the spot.

Next day, the attack was renewed; but after some sharp fighting, the insurgents sent to the general a flag of truce; the struggle was over; the barricades were destroyed; and order was once more re-established.

In none of the great battles of the empire had there been so many general officers killed and wounded, as in this desperate insurrection of June, 1848.

The number of victims officially announced, and therefore very far below the truth were 1450. The Garde Mobile lost 723 killed and wounded, besides 250 missing. The number of arrests were 11,000, of which 4348 were sentenced to transportation, and 255 were tried by courts-martial.

Soon as order was restored, Cavaignac [*Car-van-yak*], who had been made dictator for the nonce, resigned his unusual power into the hands of the National Assembly. The house publicly tendered him their

thanks; declared that "he had deserved well of his country;" and named him *President of the Council*. His administration, somewhat too conciliatory, perhaps, for such turbulent times, was marked with temperance, firmness, and judgment.

Louis-Napoleon President (11th December, 1848). In February, Louis-Napoleon (an exile in London at the time) was elected the representative of the Seine and three other departments of Paris; and, in December, was chosen, out of six candidates, *President of the Republic*.

On the 11th, he swore to remain faithful to the existing form of government, and to carry out every provision of the New Constitution, one of which was that the President should not remain in office more than four years, nor be eligible to re-election within a similar interval.

The Six Candidates.

The SOCIALISTS were divided into three classes, Democrats, Communists, and Operatives. The MODERATES were also divided into three classes, each of which was led by at least two Parisian journals.

The *Democrats* put forward Ledru-Rollin for their candidate; the *Communists*, M. Raspail: and the *Operatives*, Louis-Blanc.

M. de Lamartine was supported by the *Courier* and *Bien-Public*; general Cavaignac by the *National*, *Siccle*, and *Débats*; and Louis-Napoléon by the *Presse*, *Constitutionnel*, and *Liberté*.

The whole struggle was between the last two candidates. Cavaignac was the favourite of the National Assembly, and Louis-Napoléon of the masses. The election of the latter was carried by a majority of 5 to 1. He polled almost 5½ millions of votes.

Rome taken (3rd July, 1849). Pius IX., on ascending the pontifical throne in 1846, announced the most liberal reforms, and chose Rossi, a Frenchman, for his Minister of Foreign Affairs. The people, instead of waiting for these ameliorations, rose in insurrection, assassinated Rossi, and insisted on selecting their *own* minister.

The Pope fled from the city to Gaëta, and a Provisional Government, consisting of Mazzini, Garibaldi, the prince of Canino, &c., was appointed. They pronounced the temporal sovereignty of the pontiff at an end, and appointed a Constitutional Assembly to provide a constitution.

The example of Rome was followed by Tuscany. The Grand Duke fled to Lucca; a Republic was proclaimed; and the Chamber of Deputies, formed into a Constitutional Assembly, confederated Tuscany with Rome.

In the face of these events the Austrians advanced to arrest the progress of the Revolution. Charles-Albert of Sardinia was defeated at Novāra by Radetzky, and abdicated in favour of his son Victor Emmanuel.

The two republics were now in a most perilous position, and sent to France for aid. The French republic interposed, not however to support the movement, but to crush it. An army was sent to Rome;

the Republicans bravely resisted ; but the French made themselves masters of the capital, restored the pope, and reduced Italy to its former bondage.

From that day to the close of 1866 a French army of occupation remained at Rome, ostensibly to protect the person of the pope ; it was then withdrawn for a little while, but in 1870 Rome was added to the new kingdom of Italy.

Coup d'Etat (2 *December*, 1851). According to the constitution of the Second Republic, the President was to remain in office only four years, and was not eligible to re-election till one president at least had intervened.

Towards the close of 1851, the government submitted to the Legislative Assembly a proposal to rescind this prohibition in favour of Prince Louis-Napoléon. The proposal was negatived by a small majority, and the President dissolved the Assembly.

Between sunset of the 1st and sunrise of the 2nd of December, Thiers, Changarnier, Lamoricière, Bedeau, Cavaignac, and several others were arrested. At daybreak, troops occupied the Legislative Palace to prevent any minister from entering ; and on every wall in the city it was announced, that the National Assembly was dissolved, and Universal Suffrage restored by the authority of the Prince President.

All Paris was in commotion. Troops paraded the streets both night and day ; Barricades were thrown up ; and several furious skirmishes took place between the partisans of the President and those of the Legislature. General St. Arnaud [*Ar-no*] had the conduct of the President's troops ; and, by his active, prudent, and energetic measures, carried every point and reduced the opponents to order.

Louis Napoléon then made an appeal to the people, and asked them to re-elect him for 10 years, that he might carry out his great measures for their permanent welfare. To this appeal seven millions and a half out of eight millions of votes were in the prince's favour. Accordingly, he was entrusted with power for 10 more years, to prepare a constitution, or reform that which already existed.

The National Guard was disbanded 12th January, 1852.

Louis Napoleon Emperor (2 *December*, 1852). Soon after the *Coup d'état* the French eagles were introduced upon the French banners, and on the cross of the Legion-of-Honour. The prince-president made a tour of the provinces, and was greeted wherever he went with cries of *Vive L'Empereur* !

On his return to the capital, he again appealed to the people, when eight millions of votes were given in his favour. So, on the 2nd of December, just one year after the *Coup d'état*, he was declared Emperor of the French, under the name and title of Napoléon III.

CELEBRITIES.

GAY-LUSSAC AND ARAGO.

Gay-Lussac (1778—1850), one of the most distinguished philosophers of the century, is especially noted for his balloon ascents for the purpose of ascertaining whether magnetic force exists in the higher regions of the air. On one occasion he ascended to the then unparalleled height of 23,000 feet. His *law of volumes* is one of the most important discoveries in chemistry.

Gay Lussac made valuable researches on a host of subjects, such as the galvanic pile, the expansion of vapour and gases, acoustics, and atmospheric air; on sodium, potassium, iodine, fluoric acid, sulphur, prussic acid; hygrometry, capillarity, the barometer, the best assays of the precious metals, &c., &c., &c.

His chief works are *Physico-Chemical Researches*, *Annals of Chemistry*, *Course of Natural Philosophy*, and *Course of Chemistry*. The last three published after his death.

Arago (1786—1853), the astronomer and natural philosopher, was educated at the Polytechnic school of Paris, and excited the admiration of every one by the spirit, promptitude, and intelligence which he exhibited.

In 1806, he was engaged, with Biot and others, by the French government, to carry out the measurement of an arc of the meridian, commenced by Delambre and Méchain.

His attention was chiefly directed to astronomy, magnetism, galvanism, and the polarisation of light. In 1812, he commenced his extraordinary course of lectures on astronomy, which fascinated all Paris.

In 1816, in conjunction with Gay-Lussac, he confirmed the truth of the undulatory theory of light, projected by Dr. Thomas Young. And, in 1825, discovered the development of magnetism by rotation.

In politics, Arago was a republican, and took a prominent part in the revolutions of 1830 and 1848. In the latter, he formed one of the Provisional government. After the *coup d'état*, he refused to take the oath of allegiance to Louis Napoléon, but the emperor did not banish him, as he did so many others.

His best known work is *Popular Astronomy* edited by his two sons.

Daguerre (1788—1851), inventor of the *diorama* and *daguerreotype process*, was a French painter. Photography has superseded Daguerre's invention, but is inferior to it in microscopic perfection.

NAPOLEON III., EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH;

1852, DEPOSED 1870. *Victoria contemporary.*

Empire divided into 89 départements, comprising 373 *arrondissements*, 2938 *cantons*, and 37,510 *communes*. Each département was presided over by a *préfet*, nominated by the emperor; each *arrondissement* by a *sous-préfet*; each *canton* by a member of the *general council*; and each *commune* had its mayor and municipal staff.

Married, 1853, Marie-Eugénie de Guzman, comtesse de Téba.

Issue, 16th March, 1856, Napoléon-Eugène-Louis-Jean-Joseph.

Chief Residence. The Tuileries.

CHARLES-LOUIS-NAPOLEON-BONAPARTE, born 20th April, 1808, in the Rue Laftte, was the third son of Louis Bonaparte, ex-king of Holland, and brother of Napoléon-le-Grand. His mother was Hortense, daughter of the empress Joséphine and viscount Beauharnais her first husband. At the time of his birth his uncle's name was great, and the young Louis, being looked on as his probable successor, was hailed by salvos of cannon. Only the "king of Rome" was born in the Tuileries.

Exile. After the battle of Waterloo (1815), every member of the imperial family was banished from France. Louis and his mother first lived at Augsburg, in Bavaria; and afterwards at Arenenberg, in Switzerland. Here the young prince was honoured by the rights of citizenship and was permitted to serve in the Swiss army.

Revolution of July. While roaming over the Alpine passes, knapsack on his back and alpenstock in hand, he received the news that Charles X. was driven from his throne; soon after which he went to Paris with his mother, but was commanded to leave France, and came to England.

Refuses Poland (1831). After a few months' sojourn in London, he returned with his mother to Switzerland, and was offered the crown of Poland, which he declined, saying; "My first duty is to France, and to France I consecrate all my energies."

Petitions the King. When Louis-Philippe was elected king of the French, prince Louis-Napoléon begged permission to return, and serve in the French army; but the Citizen King took no notice of his application.

His Publications (1832—1835). The exile prince now devoted himself to literature, and produced in rapid succession his first four works: *Political Reveries*, *A Word to M. Chateaubriand*, *Thoughts about Swiss Politics*, and *a Manual of Artillery*. Since he has been emperor he has published a *Life of Cæsar*.

In the first of these, he states his belief that France is to be regenerated only by one of Napoleon's descendants, who alone can reconcile republican principles with the military spirit of the nation. His *Manual of Artillery* was favourably reviewed by the military journals, and has given the writer a high position among military tacticians.

Refuses Portugal. When (in 1835) the triumph of the constitution placed Donna Maria on the throne of Portugal, an attempt was made to marry her to Louis-Napoléon; but the prince turned a deaf ear to the overtures, as he had done to the Polish petition, and for the same reason.

Attack on Strasbourg (1836). There was always a large number of Bonapartists in France; two of whom, colonel Vaudrey and M. de Persigny, were very intimate with the prince. Believing the "King of the Barricades" to be unpopular, and that there existed a strong latent feeling in favour of Louis-Napoléon, they induced him to try his fortune by an appeal to the people.

Strasbourg seemed a favourable point to start from, not only because the inhabitants were ill-affected to the present government, but more especially, because Colonel Vaudrey was stationed there. Accordingly, on the 30th October, 1836, prince Louis-Napoléon went to Strasbourg, where he was introduced to the 4th regiment of artillery, which received him with unbounded enthusiasm, and escorted him to the infantry barracks. Here he hoped to obtain a similar reception, but in this was deceived, as the officer in command not only pronounced him an impostor, but kept him prisoner till the 9th of November, and then sent him to Paris to take his trial. The government thinking it unadvisable to bring him into public notice, pardoned his offence, and shipped him off to the United States: but he had scarcely set foot in the New World, when he heard that his mother was dangerously ill; and, returning to Switzerland, arrived but just in time to close her dying eyes (1837).

Retires to England (1838). His presence in Switzerland being thought dangerous to the peace of France, Louis-Philippe demanded of the Swiss his immediate expulsion. The diet nobly refused compliance with this demand, but the prince, to prevent ill consequences, quietly returned to England, where, in 1839, he published his celebrated work, *Des Idées Napoléoniennes*.

Escapade at Boulogne. In the summer of 1840, he resolved to make another attempt to force himself into notice, and excite, if possible, a revolution in France.

Having hired an English steamer, he landed at Boulogne, with 55 adherents in military uniforms, who escorted him into the town, at five o'clock in the morning, shouting *Vive l'Empereur!* but the National Guard being called out, the party ran to the beach; and all of them were captured in their attempt to reach the steamer.

The prince, for this offence, was condemned to *imprisonment for life* in the fortress of Ham, about 20 leagues from Paris. General Montholon, M. de Persigny, and two others, for 20 years; Dr. Conneau and three others for five years. In the sixth year of his captivity, Louis-Napoléon contrived to effect his escape.

Escape. In the spring of 1846, some workmen were employed in repairing the fort, when the prisoner, having borrowed the clothes of a carpenter, deceived the vigilance of the guards; crossed the channel; and took refuge in England, where he remained till the revolution of '48.

Represents Paris. In February (1848), the "throne of July" fell; and prince Louis-Napoléon hastened to Paris to salute the Provisional Government. Being elected by several departments as their representative in the new Assembly, he selected Paris

as the one for which he would sit; and from this moment, his life forms a part of the history of France.

His Character. Firm and faithful in his friendships; possessed of a rare perception of the wants of his age; simple, studious, almost austere in his habits; having an ardour of spirit, an energy of will, and perseverance of purpose, which carried him constantly forward; skilled in knowing, and prompt in seizing the fitting time; in short, a man of reflection and of action, a statesman and a soldier, a Julius and Augustus, such was Napoleon III., the second emperor of France.

He ever proved himself a true and consistent friend to England, whose ally he remained from the breaking out of the Crimean war; and he did good service in opening the ports of France to English commerce.

Louis-Napoléon of Gore-house and Jermyn-street, London, had scarcely one characteristic, beyond taciturnity, in common with Napoleon III., emperor of the French. The fortress of Ham was his equator. On one side we see an adventurer at whom the ministers of Louis-Philippe laughed, as at a semi-idiot, and whom the daughter of an English squire rejected in marriage; on the other, a ruler of great sagacity, but placed amidst military, political, and ecclesiastical difficulties, which needed more than the strength of one man to surmount. He died at Oisehurst (Kent), January 9th, 1873.

WARS OF THE SECOND EMPIRE.

§ *The Crimean War (1854—1855).*

When Napoléon III. was elected emperor, he pronounced these memorable words "The Empire is Peace!" but scarcely was he crowned, when France drifted into a war with Russia.

The czar Nicholas had, for some time, been casting his eye upon Constantinople, and thought the time was ripe for adding Turkey to his vast empire. France, he thought, was fully occupied with her own unsettled state; Prussia was his ally; Austria was bound to him for his aid in suppressing the insurrection of Hungary; and as for England, she would hardly attempt to interfere, as she had to look after her vast Indian possessions.

Under this delusion, he invaded the Danubian principalities, which were tributary to Turkey; but England and France immediately entered into an alliance to defend the Porte, and Sardinia joined the alliance during the progress of the war.

Battle of the Alma (20 September, 1854). On the 14th September the allied armies of England, France, and Turkey, under the command of lord Raglan and marshal de St. Arnaud [*Ar-no*], disembarked at Eupatoria, on the eastern side of the Crimea. Six days afterwards, they encountered 60,000 Russians under the command of prince Menschikoff, posted on the heights of the Alma, dislodged them, and won the first victory of the war.

Inkermann (5 November, 1854). The French took no part in the charge of Balaclava (Sept. 26), but on the 5th Nov. when the British army was attacked on the heights of Inkermann, at four in the morning, general Canrobert [*Can-ro-bair*] sent a reinforcement to their assistance. The fight continued till four in the afternoon, when the Russians retreated in disorder, leaving the field covered with their slain.

Sebastopol Taken (8 September, 1855). Sebastopol was the point which was to settle the present question. It had held out for 12 months, but on Sept. 8th, marshal Pelissier [*Pe-lece-së-a*] who had been sent to take the command of the French army, led his soldiers against the famous *Malakoff* tower and carried it. During the darkness of the night the Russians abandoned Sebastopol, which was taken possession of by the allied armies.

Treaty of Paris (30 March, 1856). During the siege the emperor Nicholas of Russia died, and his son, Alexander II., having no wish to prolong the war, consented to terms of peace. A conference was held at Paris, where a treaty was signed, and the independence of Turkey guaranteed.

1855. The great *Exposition Universelle* of industry and art was held in the Champs Elysées. In May the emperor and empress visited London and Windsor in state, and in August queen Victoria visited Paris and Versailles.

1858. On the 14th January the emperor and empress arrived at the opera at half-past eight o'clock, when projectiles were thrown at them; they burst under the horses, killed five persons, and wounded 60. The authors of this attempt on the life of his majesty were four Italians; count Orsini, colonel Piëri, Gomez a domestic, and Rudio. The first three were executed and Rudio was transported.

Two years before (1856), Pianori shot at the emperor twice in the Champs Elysées. In December, 1863, Greco, an Italian, made an attempt on the emperor's life.

§ 2. THE AUSTRIAN WAR (1859).

For a long time the state of Italy had excited the inquietude of Europe, and the tyranny of her oppressor general dissatisfaction. At length, Austria attacked Piedmont, and France chivalrously came forward in her defence. The allied armies amounted to 200,000 fighting men. It was divided into five corps,* and Napoléon himself went in person to take the command.

Battle of Magenta (4 June, 1859). After having gained certain advantages at Montebello and Palestro, the French army marched towards Mil'an. MacMahon was sent forward to Magenta, while the emperor waited for the other divisions. While MacMahon was separated from the rest of the army he was attacked by the Austrians, and not only sustained the attack, but even compelled a retreat. A terrible carnage ensued, and MacMahon was made on the field a marshal of France, and duc de Magenta. This was the great battle of the campaign.

Battle of Solferino (24 June, 1859). On the night of the 23rd, the Austrians recrossed the Mincio, resolved to take the offensive. Early next morning they occupied the formidable position of Solferino, in number about 250,000. The allied French and

* The five corps were under the commands of Baraguay d'Hilliers, Canrobert, MacMahon, Niel, and prince Napoléon. Besides the main army, general Garibaldi raised a body of 4000 volunteers, and greatly aided the Italian cause.

Sardinian army went to dislodge them, and the fight continued from six in the morning to three in the afternoon, when the Austrians retreated, leaving 1500 prisoners in the hands of the allies.

In this engagement the French used for the first time their *rifled cannons*, whose range was so great that, without doubt, success was in a great measure due to these powerful field pieces.

Peace of Villafranca (12 July, 1859). The Austrians next entrenched themselves in the famous "Quadrilateral;" but, while all Europe was expecting another battle, a telegram announced that an armistice had been privately concluded between the emperor of the French and the emperor of Austria.

A treaty of peace was signed a day or two afterwards, providing (1) That Italy was to be formed into a confederation under the presidency of the pope; (2) That Austria was to cede Lombardy to France, and France was to hand it over to Sardinia; (3) That Venice was to remain with Austria, but to form a part of the confederation.

France now retired from the struggle, which was continued by Garibaldi, who added the two Sicilies to the crown of Sardinia; and in 1861 Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed *king of Italy*. Rome was not added to the kingdom till the autumn of 1870.

1860. The limits of the city of Paris were extended to the glacis or slope of the fortifications. In March, Savoy and Nice were annexed to France; and in June, Jérôme, the last brother of Napoléon I. died.

1861. The remains of Napoléon I. were placed in the mausoleum under the dome of the Hôtel des Invalides. In October, England, France, and Spain combined against Mexico, but next year England and Spain withdrew.

1864. The emperor, who had been left to continue the Mexican expedition single-handed, induced the archduke Maximilian of Austria to accept the crown of Mexico, but in 1867 he was betrayed by his friend general Lopez to Juarez, leader of the insurgents, and shot.

§ 3. WAR WITH PRUSSIA, 1870—1871.

The popularity of the emperor had been declining for several years, and in the last plebiscite even the soldiery voted largely against the government. War seemed to be the only way out of the difficulty, and if the limits of France could be driven back to the Rhine, so as to take in the Rhineland of Southern Germany and the kingdom of Belgium, the emperor would become more popular than ever, and the throne would descend securely to his son.

When a quarrel is determined on, a pretext is not long wanting. It so happened at this period that Spain had driven queen Isabella from the throne, and had vainly endeavoured to find some one to occupy her place. Prince after prince refused to accept the crown, but at last a prince of one of the small German states consented to accept it.

This was made the ground of complaint. France insisted that king William of Prussia should not only forbid the prince of Hohenzollern to accept the crown of Spain, but should guarantee that no German prince should ever reign in that country. The king of Prussia replied that it was not in his power to do either one or the other, but he promised to advise his kinsman to decline the offer. The prince followed this advice, and it was supposed that the grievance was at an end.

Not so. France had for four years been preparing for war; the army was supplied with guns of a long range, called chassepots, from the inventor, and a formidable battery of cannons, called the mitrailleuse had been added to the field guns. The emperor thought his army thus armed would be irresistible, and the soldiers were mad for war; so the emperor sent word back that he was not satisfied, and the messenger employed offered a personal insult to the king by forcing himself upon his privacy. The king told the messenger he had no further reply to make, and war was immediately declared from Paris.

All Paris was jubilant, and everyone there expected that the war would be a triumphant march to Berlin, when the Prussians would consent to give up the Rhineland and pay the expenses of the campaign; but events turned out very differently, for instead of the French marching to Berlin, the Prussians beat back the French armies from the eastern frontier to Paris, which it entirely invested, within about two months from the commencement of the war.

The emperor with his son left St. Cloud (*Clew*) July 28th, 1870, for the frontier, whither his army had been sent some days before, the empress being left in Paris as regent.

August 2, the business of the war began. The French crossed the frontier and carried the height overlooking Saarbrück. The emperor and the prince were present at the action; it was an affair of no merit, but the emperor telegraphed to the empress of the bravery of their boy; who was not afraid when he passed through his "baptism of fire."

This was the only laurel which the French won, paltry and contemptible in the extreme. The crown prince of Prussia suddenly attacked Weissenbourg on the 4th August, and marshal MacMahon advancing to bar his further progress, suffered on the 6th a most disastrous defeat at Woerth.

This blow to the French arms was followed by a Prussian attack upon Saarbrück, which was regained, the French being driven from the height.

Disaster followed disaster; the demoralized French troops fled in all directions; the invincible army was a mere wreck, and still on

marched the Prussian forces steadily, resolutely, grandly, carrying all before them. Blow followed blow with fearful rapidity, and not once did Fortune change. Never were so many slain in a single war, never did victors take such spoil of arms and so many prisoners.

Battle of Sedan (*Sept. 1, 1870*). The emperor had first fallen back upon Metz, then retreated to Verdun, then to the camp of Châlons, and then to Rheims. The remnants of the defeated army of MacMahon flocked thither, and MacMahon himself had the command. The marshal retreated towards Belgium, and on the 1st of September was attacked near the fortress of Sedan at five o'clock in the morning. A shell burst beneath the horse of the marshal and wounded him in the thigh. He was carried back, and the emperor hastened to supply his place; but wholly unable to withstand the Prussians, a flag of truce was displayed and the fortress of Sedan surrendered to the enemy.*

Surrender of the Emperor (*Sept. 2, 1870*). Just one month after the "baptism of fire" the emperor placed his sword at the feet of king William of Prussia, and was sent to Wilhelms Höhe (4 *syl.*) for his temporary residence. Here he was treated with every honour due to his exalted rank; and there he remained till March, 1871, when he joined the empress and his son at Camden House, Chislehurst, Kent.

With the surrender of the emperor terminated the first half of the great Franco-Prussian War. A republic was forthwith declared, and certain ministers, of whom Jules Favre, general Trochu, and Léon Gambetta were the most conspicuous, formed themselves for the time being into the "Government of the National Defence."

¶ The first part of the war consisted of a series of battles, the second of a series of sieges.

The roll of French towns which became a prey to the Germans within a few months, is most startling: Nancy, the *darling of Lorraine*; Strasbourg, the *Amazon of Alsace*; Metz, the *maiden fortress*; Rheims, the *Sanctuary of Champagne*; Dijon, the court of Burgundy; Laon and Soissons, the abodes of Frankish royalty; Orleans, the field of the "Maid's" exploits; and Rouen, the scene of her legendary martyrdom.

Siege of Paris (*Sept. 19, 1870, to Jan. 28, 1871*). Immediately after the battle of Sedan, the Prussians marched towards Paris, and completed its investment by September 19th. General Trochu was placed in command of the defence; the seat of Government was moved first to Tours and then to Bordeaux, and during the siege the only communication between Paris and the outer world was by balloon or

* At Sedan 90,000, and at Metz 170,000 French soldiers were made prisoners of war.

carrier pigeons.* After great suffering, especially from want of food and fuel, the Parisians capitulated January 28th, and peace was formally signed by the "National Assembly" at Bordeaux, on the 1st of March, 1871.

The Franco-Prussian war lasted six months to a day. The emperor left St. Cloud July 28th, 1870, and Paris capitulated January 28th, 1871.

700,000 French were made prisoners of war by the Germans, of which 100,000 interned in Belgium and Switzerland, and 180,000 in Paris. The German losses were 103,532, of which 4,500 were officers.

Terms of Peace. After the capitulation of Paris a National Assembly was convoked to accept and sign the terms of peace. M. Thiers (*Tears*) the veteran historian was by election made President, and with great judgment and tact he induced the assembly to lose no time in accepting the terms proposed by count Bismark the Prussian chancellor. The chief items were (1) a money indemnity of 200 millions sterling; and (2) the cession of Alsace and German Lorraine, including the fortified towns of Strasbourg and Metz.

The exact territorial cession was three-quarters of the department of the Moselle, one-third of the department of the Vosges, all the department of the Haut Rhin except a canton and a half, and the entire department of the Bas Rhin. These territories contain in round figures 1,616,000 inhabitants, furnish a military contingent of 5000 men, and represent a superficial extent of 1,776,000 hectares, or 5760 square miles.

THE EMPEROR AND HIS EMPIRE.

What strikes us first in the new empire was its resemblance to the former. There were the same green liveries of the imperial family, the same magic initial **N** on the plate and porcelain of the Tuileries. The same Imperial Guard with their bearskin shakos, cantinières, and white gaiters. The same conservative Senate and Legislative Body, with all their former splendour and corruption. The same dotation of the imperial family. The same watchful supervision of the theatres, and stringent censorship of the press.† There was, again, the same remodelling of Paris, the same vexatious patronage of the Institute, and the same sumptuous encouragement of sculpture, architecture, and historic painting. Napoleon III. was the continuation of Napoleon I. Both began as republican chiefs, both made themselves emperors, both sought to extend the limits of France at the expense of neighbouring kingdoms, both wished to be arbiters of the world, and both overleaped their ambition. Waterloo was the end-all of the first Napoleon, Sedan of the second.

What Napoleon III. did. The restoring hand of Napoleon III. is everywhere visible in Paris and in many other parts of France besides. Whatever his failings, neglect of the city over which he reigned was not one. Paris was rebuilt during his reign. It is no longer the old city of narrow streets and ugly houses, but a new Paris, with fine wide boulevards, long straight streets, stately rows of houses, public buildings set forth to the best

* On some occasions a single pigeon conveyed as many as 30,000 communications to or from Paris at a time.

† Something was done in the early part of 1870 to give more liberty to the Legislative Assembly and the press, but the war with Prussia which broke out in the summer of that year, changed the whole aspect of affairs.

advantage, elegant squares, restored cathedral, enlarged and elaborately decorated palaces, pleasure grounds, gardens, and public fountains.

He changed the old navy into iron-clads to dispute with England the supremacy of the sea—suppressed passports—introduced universal suffrage—encouraged the extension of railroads and the electric telegraph over France—embellished Paris, extending the city boundaries to the fortifications—introduced the commercial treaty—the acceleration of law-suits—savings banks' for old age—a fund to relieve sick priests, and the asylums of Vincennes. He abolished preventive imprisonment and arrest for debt—suppressed privateering and the police de roulage—shortened military service and made it lighter—increased the pay, founded medals for distinguished merit, and augmented the allowances given in retirement.

He furthermore greatly developed the commercial enterprise of the nation. When he came to the throne, there was a thorough want of it in France. Men were afraid of spending money, were afraid of business speculations, afraid even of investments. Those who had scraped together a little money, hoarded it, and the nation received no benefit. Commercial knowledge was very limited, commercial credit extremely restricted, public securities in very little favour, and the country had no concentration. The emperor opened up this vast field of industry, and after stimulating the sluggish energies of the people by fostering care, introduced the bracing discipline of free-trade. Not free-trade as we understand the term in England, but a modified form of it. It was a step in the right direction and a bold experiment in France.

Effect. And what was the effect of all this energy and change? The worst feature was that the whole empire took to stock-jobbing. Members of the Senate and even members of the imperial family, made themselves rich by speculations in the public funds. Credit establishments and joint-stock companies sprang into rapid existence, and France outran England in foreign loans and enterprises of dangerous hazard.

The moral tone of the people soon reflected this huckstering, petty-fogging, money-fever. Never was dishonesty so common, and in no nation in Europe could there be found a greater amount of over-reaching and trickery. Every one knew that every one would deceive if he could; no one attempted to mince the matter; and success sugared over the disgrace.

¶ The dotation of Napoleon III. was £88 000 sterling a year.

∴ The national debt was increased threefold in his reign. At the breaking out of the war it was 580 millions sterling. The money indemnity of the war was 200 millions sterling, and the expense of the war about the same.

GERMANY AND FRANCE REVERSED BY THE WAR.

I. AREA.

France before the war contained square kilometres . 543,051

North Germany 413,159; South Germany, 114,543 = 527,702

France was therefore 15,349 square kilometres the larger.

When peace was signed 15,586 square kilometres of territory were transferred to Germany, and the two countries then stood thus:

Germany 543,288 and France 527,465.

Germany is therefore now 15,823 square kilometres larger than France.

II. POPULATION.

France before the war contained 38,067,000 inhabitants.

Germany „ „ „ 37,581,000 „

France therefore contained 486,000 more inhabitants than Germany.

When peace was signed, 1,616,000 inhabitants were transferred from France to Germany, and the respective numbers then stood thus:

Germany 39,197,000 inhabitants; France 36,451,000.

Making Germany more populous than France by 2,746,000 souls.

REPUBLIC restored. M. Thiers, President.

1871 TO MAY 24th, 1873.

Population of France 36,451,000. Area 195,818 square kilometres. Departments 85. National Debt £580,000,000. War indemnity £200,000,000. War expenses £200,000,000. Number of members in the National Assembly nominally 700; 7 being dukes, 21 marquises, 31 counts, 8 viscounts, and 11 barons. The Assembly first met at Bordeaux, but after the peace it removed to Versailles.

The Government of Defence resigned on the 13th February to the National Assembly met at Bordeaux, and was succeeded by a Republic, with M. Thiers as president and minister of war. The first business of the Assembly was to deliberate on the terms of peace, already accepted provisionarily by M. Thiers. Out of 653 members present on the occasion 546 voted for peace, and only 107 were for continuing the contest. From the signing of the peace by M. Thiers a part of the German army occupied the Champs Elysees of Paris, but immediately the terms were ratified by the National Assembly the army of occupation prepared to evacuate the city (March 3).

The dotation of Napoleon III. was £88,000 a year, but that of president Thiers £2000. The grand dignitaries of the imperial household had salaries of £4000 a year, and the *first* dignitaries £2000 each. Both these dotations were abolished by the National Assembly in March, 1871.

On January 28th, 1871, the six months Franco-German war was terminated by the capitulation of Paris; and a Constituent Assembly was convoked at Bordeaux for February 15th, to accept and ratify the terms of peace. M. Thiers, the aged historian of the Consulate and the Empire, was appointed Head of the Executive power of the new French Republic, under the authority of the National Assembly.

February 26th he signed the preliminaries of peace, giving up Alsace and Lorraine, with Strasbourg and Metz, and agreeing to a money indemnity to the amount of 200 millions sterling, to be paid within five years. These hard terms were duly accepted and ratified by the Assembly; and the document which embodies them is known in history as **The Treaty of Versailles** (1871).

From this moment troubles began to set in, and for nine weeks gathered to a head. The government acted without judgment or firmness; they suppressed six democratic journals, lost from their ranks M. Victor Hugo and many others, but suffered the National Guard to seize upon the strong holds of Paris, and get into their possession the gunpowder and arms which had been piled up for the late siege. With these in their hands the Insurgents organized themselves into a regular government, called the Central Committee of the Communists, and appointed nine sub-committees to superintend the several departments of finance, public instruction, foreign affairs, home matters, the army, the municipalities, and so on. The Hôtel

de Ville was the seat of their government, and Belleville and Montmartre their strong holds.

In the mean time the National Assembly, with the Executive and Army withdrew from Bordeaux to Versailles (*March 20*). At first M. Thiers made offers of compromise to the Central Committee, but just in proportion as the government showed weakness, the insurgents became more insolent and arrogant, till all hope of reconciliation being abandoned on both sides, it became necessary for one to stamp out the other without mercy or quarter.

Within nine weeks the end came, but what an end! Marshal Mac Mahon was put at the head of the government troops and marched upon Paris. On May 17th the Communists pulled down the beautiful bronze column of the Place Vendome, erected by the first Napoleon to commemorate his victories.* This wanton act was either dictated by a rooted hatred to the emperor, or a visionary hope of pleasing the Germans stationed in the vicinity, or by a foolish sentimental notion that all nations are brothers and should not perpetuate old hostilities.

Scarcely was the column laid low, when the government troops made themselves masters of Montmartre, and the National Guards were driven to Belleville, their last refuge; but in their rage and despair, in the night of the 24th May, they set fire to the noblest buildings of the city by means of hay saturated with petroleum. The Tuileries were burnt to a mere shell; the Palais Royal, Palais de Justice, Hôtel de Ville, Prefecture of Police, one or two churches and theatres, with numerous other buildings, constituting nearly a fourth of Paris, were destroyed. For three days the fire raged. Every quarter of Paris was scarred with conflagrations, torn by shells, pitted with musketry, stained with blood. The conflict was terrible indeed! There was no choice in the temper of hatred and vengeance which ruled in the communist or national troops, both rushed at each other's throats like tigers; it was a battle of pandemonium.

The insurgents had already imprisoned the Archbishop of Paris, the Curé of the Madeleine,† and 234 others as hostages. When now all hope was gone they brought out their victims to be shot, and succeeded in taking the lives of the Archbishop and Curé, with 66 others, before the national troops could interfere. Bad as this was, the government army was no better, but for six days rushed about the city shooting, bayoneting, ripping up prisoners, women, and

* It was made of cannons taken from the enemies, and was a facsimile of the famous column of Trajan. It was begun in 1806 and completed in 1810. It had a magnificent series of bas-reliefs 900 feet long, depicting the various victories of Napoleon I., and terminating with that of Austerlitz in 1805.

† Monseigneur Darboy and the Venerable Abbé Deguerry.

children. Nothing like it is known in history, The siege of Jerusalem was Roman against Jew, but this was Frenchman against Frenchman. Words cannot describe the horrors. Fire and brimstone, storm and tempest, fire and smoke, torture, insult, murder, on all hands. Women forgetting their sex committed assassination like demons, poisoned the soldiers, set fire to the buildings. Children dropped petroleum into the areas of houses; soldiers shot down opponents regardless of their age or sex by scores and hundreds; and so came the end. The Communists were stamp'd out; the beautiful city was laid in ashes; and M. Thiers, mid slaughter and savagery, unparalleled in history, succeeded in forcing his government on the capital of France. He was elected Feb. 17th, 1871, and dismissed May 24th, 1873, for declaring that the republic ought to be legally organized and constituted.

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**MARSHAL MACMAHON** Second President of the restored Republic.

FROM MAY 24th, 1873, TO

(Victoria Queen.)

The object of M. Thiers' overthrow and the appointment of Marshal M'Mah'on was a growing dislike of a large party to a republican government, and a desire to restore the monarchy. Their great difficulty has been to find a successor both willing to accept the crown, and able to take the lead.

The war indemnity of 200 millions sterling was fully paid up in Sept., 1873, when the Prussians immediately evacuated France. The national debt was then very nearly 749 millions sterling; it is said that the disastrous Franco-German war cost France altogether somewhat more than 600 millions sterling.

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SKETCH OF THE FRENCH HISTORIANS.

In giving a sketch of the French historians, it will be convenient to divide them into four periods. The first will extend from the earliest times to the 13th century; the second from that point to the middle of the 17th century; the third will take us down to the revolution; and the fourth will embrace the living authors.

(I.) Of those who attained to the dignity of historians in the first of these periods, the only name of any note is GREGORY OF TOURS, who lived in the sixth century, and whose *Ecclesiastical History* is the most valuable work extant of those early times.

(II.) In the second period we have VILLEHARDOUIN [*Veal-hard-wuh*], who wrote, in old French, a history of the *Conquest of Constantinople*, continued, in the 17th century, by DUCANGE. At the close of the 13th century, came the vivid and picturesque FROISSART; two centuries later, D'AUBENE [*Dobe-nay*] produced his *Universal History*, and the great SULLY left behind him his valuable *Memoirs*.

In the 16th century, DE THOU [*Too*] wrote in Latin a *History of His own Times*, one of the best historical works ever produced. In the 17th, MEZERAI wrote his *History of France*, which was considered superior to anything of the kind hitherto produced; and the abbé de ST. REAL, called by Voltaire the *Sallust* of France, his *Spanish Conspiracies against the Republic of Venice*, from which Otway obtained his "Don Carlos" and "Venice Preserved."

(III.) Between the middle of the 17th and that of the 18th centuries appeared a cluster of French historians headed by BOSSUET, whose *Universal History* is one of the best works in the nation. In quick succession followed FLEURY'S *Ecclesiastical History*; DANIEL'S *History of France*; BASNAGE'S *History of the Jews*; VERTOT'S *Revolutions of Portugal, Sweden, and Rome*; RAPIN'S *History of England*; ROLLIN'S *Ancient History and History of Rome*, once adopted by almost all Europe for educational purposes, but now almost wholly neglected; and VOLTAIRE, whose *Louis XIV. and Essay on History* are above all praise.

In 1839, died MICHAUD [*Me-sho*], whose *History of the Crusades and History of The Hundred Days* are standard works of high reputation.

(IV.) No country in the world has such a cluster of eminent historians as France in the second empire. The following have European reputation.

(1.) Baron de Barante [*Bar-ront'*] 1782—) has published a *History of the Dukes of Burgundy and the House of Valois*, and also histories of the *Convention and Directory*.

(2.) Guizot (1787—), distinguished alike for his generalization and power of narrative, has published a host of works. His *Memoirs of the English Revolution*, *History of the English Revolution*, *Memoirs of the History of France*, *History of European Civilization*, *History of French Civilization*, and *Course of Modern History*, have all been translated into English, and take a high position.

(3.) Augustin Thierry [*Tear-re*] (1795—1856) is well known for his *History of the Conquest of England*, *Letters on the History of France*, and *The Merovingian Times*. This last work he composed when blind.

(4.) Amedee Thierry (1797—1873) is no less distinguished for his *History of the Old Celtic Population of France*, an excellent work; *History of Gaul under the Romans*, and *History of Attila and his Successors*, a work translated into all the languages of Europe.

(5.) Mignet [*Min-ya*] (1796—) has published a *History of the Revolution*, which enjoys considerable reputation.

(6.) Thiers [*Tee-ars*] (1798—) is the author of a *History of the French Revolution*, and a *History of the Consulate and Empire*. These two works are highly popular in France, but are considered heavy and one-sided by foreigners.

In physical appearance it is impossible to conceive a more insignificant creature than M. Thiers. He has neither figure, shape, grace, nor mien. His voice is harsh, thin, and reedy; his aspect sinister and deceitful; his smile mocking and hideous; but when he talks, he is so voluble, lively, and full, so concise, logical, and eloquent, that you listen with rapture and forget his appearance. He was the first President of the restored Republic. See p. 427a.

(7.) Michelet [*Meash-lay*] (1798—) has published several histories, the best of which are *Rome and France*. His style is vivid and energetic, and his descriptions so true to life that they rivet the attention. He is especially known in England by his work entitled *Priests, Women, and Families*, which, at one time, created considerable excitement.

(8.) Capectigue [*Cap-fee*] (1802—) is a voluminous writer, whose chief works are histories of *Philippe-Auguste*; *Henri IV. and the League*; *Richelieu*, *Mazarin and the Fronde War*; *Louis XIV.*; *Europe during the time of Napoleon*; *Europe since the Accession of Louis-Philippe*; &c.

(9.) Pages (Garnier). *History of the Revolution of 1848*.

(10.) Merimee [*Merry-may*] (1803—) has written a history of *Charles IX.*, and another of *Don Pedro I. of Castile*; but is still better known for his romances, especially his *Double Blunder*, an admirable picture of manners; and *Colomba*, a charming novel. Indeed, his "Charles IX." might rather be styled an historical romance than a sober history.

(11.) Louis Blanc (1813—) has acquired a lasting reputation by his "French Revolution" (*Histoire de Dix Ans*), giving its political and social history. This very interesting work, which gives a most vivid picture of the times, is eloquent, bold, dignified, candid, and impartial. Lamartine's *History of the Girondists* has been already mentioned.

Of Biographical writers, by far the best are, EGINHARD, whose *Life of Charlemagne* is one of the best pieces of biography ever written. Scarcely inferior are the *St. Louis of JOINVILLE*, and the *Memoirs of Louis XI. and Charles VIII.*, by Philippe de COMINES [*Com-in*]. St. SIMON's *Memoirs of Louis XIV. and regency of Louis XV.*, recently translated into English, have been read with great interest. Inferior to these, but still of high merit, are MOTTEVILLE's *Anne of Austria*, and BRANTOME's illustrious *Captains and Women*. The best French Biographical Dictionaries are the *Dictionnaires Historiques* of Moréri and Baley, which, however, are now superseded by the *General Biographical Dictionary* of the brothers Michaud [*Me-sho*], commenced in 1811.

BIOT AND J. B. DUMAS.

Biot [*Be-ott*] (1774—1862) was sent with Arago to Spain to measure a degree of the meridian, for the sake of obtaining a unit for the decimal system of weights and measures, but his most valuable contributions to science are on the polarisation of light. Of his works, the following are most esteemed: *Elements of Physical Astronomy. Physics, Geodesic Observations.*

J. B. Dumas (1800—), the eminent French chemist, is celebrated for his researches in organic chemistry. His chief work is *Chemistry applied to the Arts*, in 8 vols.

FRENCH NOVELS, PART II. (Concluded from p. 242.)

Honoré de Balzac (1799—1850), one of the best of modern French novelists, was born at Tours. Till 1800, he was wholly unsuccessful as a writer, but in that year he produced his novel called *The Last of the Chouans*, which brought him into notice.

His best works are: *Physiology of Marriage, Scenes of Private Life. Scenes of Provincial Life, Scenes of Paris Life, The Country Practitioner, Father Goriot, &c.*

Of his novels, two only can lay claim to artistic completeness, viz., the *Intellectual History of Louis Lambert*, and *Eugénie Grandet*; but in almost all there is a richness of description in portraying peculiar features of character.

Eugène Sue (1799—1857), the novelist, was born at Paris. His popularity rests chiefly on two works, *The Mysteries of Paris*, and *The Wandering Jew*, both of which show more talent than morality.

He was a Socialist; and, as such, obtained a seat in the National Assembly, in 1849. He lived in great luxury, though he paraded his sentiment "that no one has a right to superfluity, so long as a single person is in want of necessaries."

Alexandre Dumas (1803—1870), a Creole, and one of the most fertile, popular, and vain of French writers, published a host of novels upon French history, the most of which were furnished piecemeal to French journals. His best known, at least out of France, are *Monte Christo*, the *Three Musketeers*, *Twenty Years Afterwards*, and *Queen Margot*.

With an insatiable love for notoriety, Alexandre Dumas contrived to occupy the gossip of France. He was a rapid writer, aped the *grand seigneur*, and talked with easy familiarity of his friends, the princes.

If not an accomplished duellist, he was at least a great theorist on the subject. He never "smelt powder," but to see him, on a review day, at the head of a company of National Guards, you might have fancied him a very Cæsar. He attempted more than once to foist himself into the French ministry, but failing in that, followed the wake of Garibaldi in 1860, under the hope of being palmed off upon the Italians. The object of his life was to get talked about, and set men wondering.

As a dramatist, he sided with the Romantic against the Classic school, and was one of its most successful advocates. His first drama was *Henri III.*, which so delighted the duc d'Orléans that he made him his librarian.

Dumas was the greatest literary quack that ever lived. He employed a host of poor authors and literary hacks, intrusted to them a sketch, and paid them to work it out. It was thus that he sometimes produced in a single year more works than any single man could have transcribed in the time.

Victor Hugo (1802—), poet, novelist, &c., is the head of the *Romantic School* in France. In 1841 he became a member of the Academy, and in 1845 was created a peer of France. In 1852 he was placed on the list for extradition, and, being exiled from France, took up his residence in Jersey, whence he launched forth the lightning of his scorn, both in prose and verse, against the Emperor Napoleon III. The most telling of these productions is entitled *Napoléon the Little*.

Victor Hugo has been a prolific writer, both of novels and dramas. His *Nôtre Dame de Paris* is one of the best novels in the French language; and his *Last Days of a Condemned Criminal* had a wonderful success, unequalled except by his recent romance called *Les Misérables*.

As a poet he has been already alluded to (*see p. 411*).

George Sand, whose real name is Madame Dudevant (1804—), is one of the most elegant writers of her country, and her works are models of style.

Her *Indiana* was the first of the present "sensational school." Her *Jacques*, *Lélia*, *Mauprat*, and *Horace* are deservedly popular; but her best romances are *Valentine*, *André*, and *Consuelo*. Of her smaller pieces, *La Mare au Diable* is decidedly her master-piece.

HISTORY OF DANCING IN FRANCE.

Before the Renaissance period there were no national dances in France. Lower Brittany had its *Passepieds*, Auvergne its *Bourrées*, Provence its *Rigaudons*, and Dauphiné its *Gavottes*; but Catherine de Medicis introduced the *Galliarde* and *Volta*, lively dances which soon became very fashionable, and superseded the slow solemn movements of the provinces.

Dancing, however, never really flourished till the reign of Louis XIV., who was passionately fond of it, and took lessons for 20 years of Beauchamps [*Bossharn*], "the father of all dancing-masters," and "doctor of dancing."

Beauchamps' successor was Louis Pécour, who invented a very lively dance called the *Canary*, something like our "Sir Roger de Coverley."

No dance, however, attained such popularity as the *Minuet*, which continued a universal favourite for more than a century, and was pronounced by all masters the perfection of the art. It was invented at Poitiers, but the *Minuet de la Reine*, by Gardel, danced in conjunction with the *Vestris Gavotte*, was certainly the most graceful of all its numerous varieties.

The great teacher of the *Minuet* was Marcel, whose rooms were crowded daily with all the élite of Paris, whom he abused and scolded in the coarsest manner. He was succeeded by Noverre, his pupil.

With the Revolution, the *Minuet* went out of fashion, and the *Quadrille*, introduced from England, created a *furor*. Next came the *Galop* from Germany, and from this period the poetry of dancing was brought to an end.

In the first empire, the abominable *Shawl-dance* was introduced, but no modest woman could take part in it. In the reign of Charles X., the silly *Cotillon* was fashionable, but was soon cast into the shade by the *Polka*, a Bohemian dance.

In 1844, Cellarius brought out his *Schottisch*, or "Polka tremblante;" and still later, Laborde introduced the *Lancers*, founded on an old English war-dance. This may be considered the most fashionable dance of the second empire.

Catherine de Medicis once gave a ball, in which all the provincial dances were introduced, and those who took part in them were dressed in the old national costumes. The Burgundians and Champenois danced to the *hautbois*; the Bretons to the *violin*; the Basqueans to the large *Basque drum*; the Provençals to the *tambourine*; and the Poitevins to the *bagpipes*.

In the reign of Charles IX., the court danced to solemn psalm tunes, and cardinals, bishops, and other high ecclesiastics took part in the grave amusement. The entire Council met at Trent in 1632 joined in the ball given to Philip II. of Spain.

THE BONAPARTE FAMILY.

CARLO BUONAPARTE (1746—1785)

married

Maria Letizia Ramolina (1750—1836),

had 8 children.

Names.	Born.	Died.	Title.	Married.	Offspring.
Joseph	1768	1844	King of Spain and Naples	<i>Julie Clary</i>	Zenaïde, Charlotte
Napoleon I.	1769	1821	Emp. of France	(1) <i>Joséphine</i> Tascher, widow of Visc. de Beauharnais (2) <i>Marie-Louise</i> of Austria	By her first husband Eugène de Beauharnais Hortense de Beauharnais No child by <i>Napoléon</i> Napoléon II. king of Rome, and duke of Reichstadt 1811—1832.
Lucien	1775	1840	Prince Canino	(1) <i>Mdlle. Boyer</i> (2) <i>Mad. Jouberton</i>	Charlotte, Christine Charles, Paul, Louis, Antoine, Pierre, Letizia, Jeanne, Marie, Constance
Elisa	1777	1820	Grand Duchess of Tuscany	<i>Felix Bacciochi</i>	Napoleone-Elisa, Jérôme-Charles, Frédéric
Louis	1778	1846	Kg. of Holland and Comte de St. Leu	<i>Hortense</i> de Beauharnais, daughter of <i>Joséphine</i> by her first husband	Napoléon-Charles, (died aged 5 years) Napoléon-Louis, Charles-Louis-Napoléon, the Emperor.
Pauline	1780	1825	<i>Noted for her beauty</i>	General <i>Leclerc</i> Prince <i>Borghèse</i>	None that lived.
Caroline.....	1782	1839	Queen of Naples and Countess of Lipona.	Joachim <i>Murat</i>	Achille, Lucien, Lætitia, Louise- Caroline
Jérôme	1784	1860	K. of Westphalia and Prin. of Montfort	(1) <i>Elisa Patterson</i> (marriage annulled) (2) <i>Catherine</i> of Würtemberg	Jérôme <i>Patterson</i> (died 1870.) Jérôme, Mathilde, now called <i>princess</i> , and Napoléon, now called <i>prince</i>

THE SECOND GENERATION.

Name.	Parent.	To whom married.	Born.	Died.
Joséphine	Eugène Beauharnais,	Oscar, king of Sweden	1807	
Eugénie.....	<i>duke of Leuchtenberg,</i>	Prince Hohenzollern-Hechingen	1809	
Auguste.....	<i>son of Joséphine</i>	Queen Donna Maria of Portugal	1810	1835
Amélie	<i>by her first hus-</i>	Don Pedro I. of Brazil	1812	
Théolinda	<i>band</i>	Count William of Würtemberg	1814	
Maximilien	(1781—1824)	Grand Duchess Maria, d. of the late emperor of Russia	1817	1852
Louise	Stephanie Beauharnais	Prince Wasa (<i>divorced</i>)	1809	
Joséphine	<i>cousin of the above,</i>	Prince Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	1815	
Marie	<i>and adopted by</i> <i>Napoléon I.</i>	Earl of Douglas, son of the duke of Hamilton	1817	
Zénaïde	Joseph Bonaparte	Charles, son of Lucien Bonaparte	1801	
Charlotte	"	Napoléon-Louis, son of Louis B.	1802	1839
Charlotte	Lucien Bonaparte	Gabrielle, a Roman prince	1796	
Christine	"	(1) Comte de Possé of Sweden	1799	1847
Charles-Lucien* ..	"	(2) Lord Dudley Stuart		
Létizia	"	Zénaïde, daughter of Joseph B.	1803	1857
Marie	"	Mr. Wyse, an Irishman (<i>divorced</i>)	1804	
	"	Comte Vincent Valentini de Canino	1818	
Napoléone-Elisa ...	Elisa Bonaparte	Count Camerata	1806	
Napoléon-Louis ...	Louis Bonaparte	Charlotte, daughter of Joseph B.	1804	1831
Charles-Louis-Na-	"	Eugénie de Montijo of Spain	1808	1873
poléon,				
The Emperor.				
Achille	Caroline Bonaparte	An American lady	1801	
Lucien	"	Ditto		
Létizia	"	Count Pepoli de Bologna	1802	
Louise-Caroline ...	"	Count Rasponi de Ravenne	1805	
Mathilde	Jérôme Bonaparte	Prince Demidoff (<i>divorced</i>)	1820	
Napoléon	"	Clotilde, daughter of Victor Em- manuel II. of Italy	1822	

• His eight children are :

- | | | |
|---------------------------|---------|--|
| 1 Prince Joseph Bonaparte | { 1824— | } , priest and papal chamberlain of Sa Sainteté.
, married to the marquis of Roccagiovine.
, married count Primoli.
, married to the count of Campello.
, married to prince Placido Gabrielli.
, married to princess Marie-Christine Ruspoli
, married to Louis-Joseph Napoléon, count of
Cambacerea. |
| 2 Prince Lucien | { 1828— | |
| 3 Princess Julie | { 1830— | |
| 4 Princess Charlotte | { 1832— | |
| 5 Princess Marie | { 1835— | |
| 6 Princess Augusta | { 1836— | |
| 7 Prince Napoléon | { 1839— | |
| 8 Princess Bathilde | { 1840— | |

Joseph (1768—1844), the eldest and favourite brother of Napoléon Bonaparte, was elected, in 1796, a member of the Council of Five Hundred; and, next year, was sent ambassador to Rome, but quitted the city on account of the murder of Duphot, his aide-de-camp.

In 1800, he was appointed plenipotentiary to conclude a treaty of friendship with the United States. He signed the treaty of peace at Luneville in 1801, and that of Amiens in 1802.

After the coronation of Napoléon, he was made (in 1806) king of Naples; but was too fond of the fine arts to be a vigorous ruler. In 1808, he was summarily transferred to the throne of Spain; but his only subjects were his French soldiers, and even they despised him. He maintained, however, a brilliant staff; had Paris cooks, his Spanish wines, and his fine pictures. His reign was one of turbulence and misfortunes, which terminated in five years on the field of Vittoria. History can only say of him, as a king he was the wrong man in the wrong place.

After the battle of Waterloo, he retired to America; in 1832, he came to England; and, in 1841, retired to Florence, where he died. He married Julie-Marie Clary of Marseille, sister-in-law of Bernadotte, king of Sweden. She was a quiet, unambitious woman, who bore him two daughters; the elder of whom married her cousin Charles, eldest son of Lucien Bonaparte; and the younger married her cousin Louis, an elder brother of Napoleon III.

Lucien (1775—1840), the most independent-minded of all the brothers of Napoléon Bonaparte, married first Mdle. Boyer; and, after her death, the widow of Mon. Joubert, a stockbroker.

When Napoléon was emperor, he promised to make Lucien king of Italy and Spain, if he would divorce his plebeian wife, and marry some one more nobly allied; but he would not, and preferred living at his private estate of Canino, near Tuscany, where he spent his time in art and literature. Here he enjoyed the friendship of the pope, who created him prince Canino.

Lucien was president of the Council of Five Hundred, and greatly aided the ambitious views of his brother. He was afterwards Minister of the Interior, and then ambassador to Madrid.

He had two daughters by his first wife, and nine children by his second. Of his five sons, Louis-Lucien and Antoine were returned to the National Assembly in 1849, and the former was appointed a member of the imperial senate.

Louis (1778—1846), third brother of Napoléon Bonaparte, took part in the famous Egyptian campaign; and, in 1806, was made king of Holland, or rather French prefect of Holland with the name of king. In 1810, he abdicated, rather than sacrifice the interest of his subjects to please his imperial brother.

After the battle of Waterloo, Louis retired to Florence, under the title of Comte de St. Leu.

He married the amiable and accomplished Hortense Beauharnais; but, as this marriage was wholly a matter of submission to his brother, it naturally ended in unhappiness and separation.

Hortense did not accompany her husband to Florence, but went with her son Louis-Napoléon, the late emperor, to live at Arenenberg, in Switzerland, where she died in 1837. She was the authoress of several songs; among others of the well-known *Partant pour la Syrie*.

HORTENSE (1783—1837), daughter of Joséphine and Beauharnais, was the ornament of the consular and imperial courts. She wished to marry Duroc, Bonaparte's aide-de-camp, who was in love with her; but her mother wanted to have an ally in her husband's family, and intrigued her marriage with Louis-Bonaparte. The young couple detested each other, and their union was most unhappy. After the abdication of her husband, the emperor consented

to a separation, and Hortense opened her court in Paris, where she was visited by all the élite of the first empire.

At the fall of the empire, Louis XVIII., with an ill grace, settled a provision on her, and raised the estate of St. Leu into a duchy; but before the matter was settled, Joséphine's house at Malmaison had been made the rendezvous of the allied sovereigns and high mightinesses assembled at Paris to arrange the recall of the Bourbons. The ex-empress received them with grace and tact, though she was dying.

Hortense had still to live after the death of her mother, and the close of her life was one uniform cloud of sorrow: Hunted from country to country, she had to weep over the death of the emperor; bury one of her sons, and see the last surviving one captive. She was, however, a mother in feeling and heroism, and would have parted with everything for the interest of her son. She died in 1837, and never saw her beloved son restored to the throne and empire of France.

Jerome (1784—1860) was the youngest brother of Napoléon I., and the only one who witnessed the restoration of his family.

When the war broke out between England and France, in 1803, Jérôme was cruising off the West Indies, but was soon compelled to take refuge in New York, where in a few months he married Elizabeth Patterson, the daughter of a merchant in Baltimore. The issue of this union was a son, named Jérôme, in 1806.

By the exaltation of Napoléon, Jérôme became a member of the imperial family, and his brother desired him to divorce Miss Patterson, and ally himself to some royal stock. The pope refused to sanction this nefarious scheme; but the archbishop of Paris was more compliant, and declared the marriage null and void.

In 1807, Jérôme was made king of Westphalia, and married the daughter of Frederick I. of Würtemberg, by whom he had three children, two of which are still living: the princess Mathilde, wife of the Russian count Demidoff; and prince Napoléon, husband of Clotilde of Savoy.

Jérôme remained king a little more than six years, but gave no thought to his government, the finances of which he allowed to be squandered by plunder, mismanagement, and extravagance. The battle of Leipsic brought his miserable reign to a close.

On the return of Napoléon from Elba, Jérôme was at his side, and fought both at Ligny and Waterloo; but after the peace, he left France and settled in Florence till the outbreak of the revolution in '48, when he returned to Paris.

The elevation of his nephew to the throne raised Jérôme again to his rank of prince in the empire of France.

APPENDIX.

GOVERNMENTS OF FRANCE.

The following forms of government have been tried in France.

- (1.) The ancient MONARCHY, with the King *absolute*.
- (2.) A *limited* Monarchy, under Louis XVI, and the first National Assembly (5th May, 1789).
- (3.) A REPUBLIC governed by the *Convention* (21st September, 1792).
- (4.) An OLIGARCHY of five Directors (5th October, 1795).
- (5.) A CONSULATE with the office limited to a term of years (24th December, 1799).
- (6.) The same, with the office held for life (2nd August, 1802).
- (7.) A Military EMPIRE (18th May, 1804).
- (8.) A CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY, represented by King, lords, and commons (24th April, 1814).
- (9.) The Empire restored for a hundred days (27th March, 1815).
- (10.) The Constitutional Monarchy restored for fifteen years (8th July, 1815).
- (11.) A ROYAL REPUBLIC, with an elective King, called the King of the French *people* and not the King of France. This is called the Government of JULY (9th August, 1830).
- (12.) A DEMOCRACY governed by a *National Assembly* (26th February, 1848).
- (13.) A *democratic* PRESIDENCY, with the office of president limited to four years (11th December, 1848).
- (14.) A *monarchical* Presidency, under a President holding office for ten years, a Senate, a corps Législatif, and a Council of State (2nd December, 1851).
- (15.) An *elective* EMPIRE, with the Emperor absolute, and the crown hereditary in the male descendants of the present possessor (2nd December, 1852.)
- (16.) The *Government of the National Defence* (2nd September, 1870).
- (17.) A *presidential Republic* with a National Assembly (13th Feb. 1871).

CONSTITUTIONS OF FRANCE.

- (1.) The Ancient regime.
- (2.) The *Constitution Française*, decreed by the National or Constituent Assembly, and accepted by Louis XVI. This constitution was monarchical and representative (30th September, 1791).
- (3.) The *Acte Constitutionnel* presented to the nation by the Convention, and based on the sovereignty of the people and indivisibility of the Republic (24 June, 1793).
- (4.) The *Constitution of the Year III.*, which created an executive Director and two councils (24 June, 1795).
- (5.) The *Constitution of the Year VIII.*, naming three Consuls, a Conservative Senate, a Legislative Assembly, and a Tribunal (24th December, 1799).
- (6.) The *Senatus-consulte organique de la Constitution (Year X.)*, modifying the preceding, and appointing Napoléon consul for life (2 August 1802).
- (7.) The *Senatus-consulte organique de l'empire Français (Year XII.)*, conferring on Napoléon I. the title of Emperor (18th May, 1804).
- (8.) The *Charter* granted by Louis XVIII., and abolished in 1830 (4th June, 1814).
- (9.) The *Ordinance of the 5th of September*, reducing the number of deputies from 459 to 260, and declaring that no article of the charter should be revised (5th September 1815).
- (10.) The *Constitution de la République* (26th February, 1848).
- (11.) The Constitution put forth by the *President* (14th January, 1852).
- (12.) The same modified by a *Senatus-consultum* (7th November, 1852).
- (13.) The *Plebiscit* of January 21st, 22nd, 1852.
- (14.) The second *Empire* (2nd December, 1852).
- (15.) The *Constitution de la République* (1871).

FRENCH PARLIAMENTS.

The Legislative bodies of France, their numbers, powers, and qualifications, have been changed with a caprice almost beyond credibility.

(1.) Before the Revolution we had the Provincial States, the Notables, and the States General.

The ASSEMBLY OF NOTABLES was purely consultative, and consisted of the royal princes, nobles, chief magistrates, and dignified clergy. It was convoked by the king; and the two most celebrated were those held at Versailles, between the 22nd February and 25th May, 1787, and between the 6th November and the 17th December, 1780.

The STATES GENERAL was a deliberative assembly, consisting of deputies from the nobility, clergy, and commonalty. The first was convoked by Philippe IV., in 1302, and the last by Louis XVI, in 1789, the number of deputies being 1145.

(2.) The NATIONAL ASSEMBLY. The clergy and nobles having refused to sit in the same chamber with the commonalty, the deputies of the *tiers état* withdrew, constituted themselves into a deliberative body, and assumed the name of the *Assemblée Nationale* (17th June, 1789).

The CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY is another name given to the first National assembly, because it took an oath never to separate till it had given France a constitution.

(3.) The ASSEMBLEE LEGISLATIVE succeeded the Constituent Assembly, and contained 745 representatives, who were delegated to conform the laws to the new constitution (1st October, 1791).

(4.) The NATIONAL CONVENTION was the governing body at the suppression of royalty. It originally consisted of 721 members, but the number was reduced to 500 in the year III., and to 300 in the year VIII. (21st September, 1792).

(5.) The TWO COUNCILS, one called the *Conseil des Anciens* and the other the *Conseil des Cinq-cents*. The former, consisting of 250 members, ratified or rejected the resolutions of the latter (23rd September, 1795).

(6.) The CORPS LEGISLATIF and TRIBUNAT were substituted by Napoléon for the Two Councils of the Directory. The former was composed of 300 deputies, and the latter of 50. The Tribunate was a legislative Grand Jury, whose duty was to decide what laws and bills were to be laid before the Deliberative body (24th December, 1799).

(7.) The CORPS LEGISLATIF and CONSEIL D'ETAT (1807).

(8.) The CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES and CHAMBER OF PEERS, like our Commons and Lords. The former consisted at first of 430 members; it was increased in "the monarchy of July" to 459 deputies, but on the 5th of September, the number was reduced to 260 (4th June, 1814).

(9.) Another NATIONAL ASSEMBLY of 900 members; every Frenchman in France, who had attained the age of 21 was an elector, and every one who was 25 years old was eligible for a deputy. This was the most democratic form of government ever devised. There was but one single electoral assembly and that by universal suffrage (4th May, 1848).

(10.) Another CORPS LEGISLATIF of 750 deputies (1849).

(11.) The legislature of the Second empire consisted of an EMPEROR, a SENATE, and a LEGISLATIVE CHAMBER. The Senate consisted of 150 members chosen by the Emperor, each member had a stipend of £1200 a year. The deputies of the Corps Législatif were elected for six years by universal suffrage, and received a salary of £100 a month during the time of session. In case of a dissolution of the Assembly, it was necessary to convoke a new one within six months. The number of members fluctuated with the popula-

tion, each department had one representative for every 35,000 inhabitants. In 1869-70 the deputies numbered 283, and the number of electors 10,104,023. There was besides a *Council of State* composed of the emperor, all members of the imperial family, a president, vice-president, and about 150 councillors. This was not a legislative body, but partly justiciary and partly executive, acting as a high court of appeal. In 1870 the emperor resigned the right of proposing the laws and made himself a constitutional emperor (14th Jan. 1852).

(12.) Another NATIONAL ASSEMBLY with M. Thiers president. It consisted nominally of 700 members, but as one member might represent more than one constituency, the number did not exceed 670. After the battle of Sedan (Sept. 2nd, 1870) certain persons arrogated to themselves the offices of government under the title of THE GOVERNMENT OF THE NATIONAL DEFENCE, but they resigned their office to the National Assembly 13th February, 1871.

THE EMPIRE OF FRANCE.

The Empire of France extended from 42° 20' to 51° 5' North latitude, and from the 8° 15' East longitude to 4° 54' West longitude. Its greatest length was 655 miles, from Alsace to Brittany; and its greatest breadth about 576 miles. Its superficial extent was 204,928 square miles, being nearly twice the total area of Great Britain.

The Pyrenees formed a strong bulwark on the south-west; the Alps on the south-east; the Jura and Vosges [*Voge*] mountains on the east; the Atlantic and Bay of Biscay on the west; the channel on the north; and the only open part was that facing Belgium.

The Population of France, including Nice and Savoy, was 37½ millions. In 1851, exclusive of those departments, it was nearly 36 millions; and fifty years ago it was 27 millions, so that the rate of increase is very much below the average of first-class European powers. Within the last half-century, the population of Great Britain has doubled itself, while that of France has increased but little more than one-third in the same period.

The Colonial Possessions of France are quite unsuited to her greatness in other respects. The wars of Louis XIV. and XV. deprived her of her American and most important East Indian possessions, while in the first Revolution she lost the western half of St. Domingo, a rich territory, which once exported more produce than all the British West Indies together.

Her chief colony is Algeria, which has an area of 150,000 square miles, and a population of 364,000. All her other colonies together do not exceed 25,000 square miles.

FRENCH COLONIES.

AFRICA: Algeria (1830), and some factories near the mouth of the Senegal (1637).

INDIAN OCEAN: The Isle of Bourbon and St. Marie off the coast of Africa; a small settlement in Madagascar; and the protectorate of Mayotté (1638).

PACIFIC OCEAN: New Caledonia (1853); the Marquesas (1842); and protectorate of Tahiti (1843).

ASIA: Pondicherry and Karikal, on the Coromandel coast (1672); Chandernagore, in Bengal (1672); three provinces in Cochin-China, acquired in 1863; Yandon, in the Orissa; the coaling station of Obok, in the Red Sea, taken possession of in 1863.

NORTH AMERICA: Fishing stations and small colonies in the Islands of Miquelon and St. Pierre near Newfoundland (1638).

SOUTH AMERICA: A penal settlement in Guyana, the capital of which is Cayenne, in an island of that name (1604).

WEST INDIES: Martinique (1635); Guadeloupe, &c. (1635).

EUROPE: The island of Corsica.

The figures in brackets shew the date when acquired.

Revenue. The public revenues are obtained in France from direct and indirect taxation. The annual receipts in 1869-70 amounted to £84 millions sterling. Our own is under £69 millions.

Debt. The long expensive wars of Louis XIV. raised the public debt of France to nearly 100 millions sterling. This was lessened, at his death, by a singular privilege, viz., that "a new sovereign is not bound to pay in full the liabilities of his predecessor."

In the 18th century, the revenue increased slowly, but progressively; and Necker taught the nation how to conduct a war without imposing a new tax.

At the restoration, the public debt was 123 millions sterling, but the "Hundred Days" cost the nation 160 millions.

At the accession of the present emperor in 1852, the national debt of France was under 17 millions. In 1855, in consequence of the Crimean war, three loans were authorized, one for 10, one for 20, and one for 30 millions sterling. In 1859, in consequence of the Italian campaign, another loan of 20 millions was effected. The interest of these loans and the floated debt amounted to £70 millions sterling, and the whole with the consolidated debt represented a total of £580 millions.

The interest of our own national debt is a little over £26 millions; our funded debt is £741,190,328, our unfunded £7,911,100.

Army. Standing armies date in France from the reign of Charles VII. The law of 1832 regulated the system of recruiting by *conscription*, and the annual contingent in the second empire was 100,000 men, made up year by year by lots in each commune; but exemption from service might be obtained by the payment of a given fine, about £50. The nominal effective force was 654,247 men, of which 217,261 were in reserve.

Navy. The French navy was greatly increased by Napoleon III. The fleet consisted of 456 vessels, of which 246 were armed. There were 38,000 sailors, 23,000 marines, and 25,000 coast-guardsmen in times of peace. France has also taken the lead in constructing iron-coated vessels such as *la Gloire*.

Statistics of the French Kings.

From Hugues Capet to the present emperor 37 sovereigns have occupied the throne of France, and Hugues Capet was himself the 37th from Pharamond.

Deducting for the two Revolutions, the whole length of time these reigns have occupied is 851 years, giving an average of 23 years to each reign.

The shortest reigns are Louis VIII. (3 years), Louis X. (2 years), François II. (1 year), and Philippe V., Charles IV., and Charles X. (each 6 years).

The longest reigns are Louis XIV. (72 years), and his successor Louis XV. (59 years).

The average length of life of these sovereigns is 51 years. Only two lived less than 20 years: François II. (16 years), and Louis XVII. (10 years). Four have reached threescore years, Robert, Louis VI., Louis VII., and Louis XI.; and four upwards of threescore years, Louis XIV. and Louis-Philippe (each 77 years), Charles X. (73 years), and Louis XVIII. (70 years).

Paris and its Cognizance.

Paris was built originally by the Parisii, a Celtic tribe. Parisii is from *Par-hesi*, frontier-dwellers. Their stronghold they called *Lutetia*, from *loutou-hesi*, mud-dwellings. The Romans called it *Lutetia Parisiorum*, the mud-dwellings of the Parisii. The former word being dropped, the word Paris remains.

The present heraldic device of the city is a *ship*, from some fanciful resemblance in the map of the "city" to a ship; but the more ancient cognizance was a *frog*. Probably, both the *fleur de lys* and imperial *bee* are merely innovations of this ancient device. From the city cognizance the Parisian came to be nicknamed *Crapaud* or *Grenouille* (frog), a soubriquet sometimes extended to any Frenchman. *Qu'en disent les grenouilles* (What will the frogs say)? was, in 1791, a common court sarcasm at Versailles, meaning, what will the French *canaille* say? There was a point in the "conceit" in former times, when Paris was a mere quagmire, but in the present clean well-ordered city the pleasantry would be a *lucus a non lucendo*.

The Salic Law.

The code of the Salian Franks was compiled by Clovis, or at any rate was not known in Gaul before the invasion of that Frank. It contained 400 articles, chiefly concerning debt, theft, murder, and battery, the penalty in every case being a fine. The most famous article of the code is the 6th of the 62nd title, according to which only males could succeed to the Salic land or *lod*, i.e., to the lands given for military service. In 1316, at the death of Louis-le-Hutin, this law was extended to the *crown*, and has ever since been a fundamental law of the succession.

STATISTICS OF FRANCE.

CIVIL and PHILANTHROPIC. *See* GEOGRAPHICAL.

BATHS (chief) 3; viz., Vichy, Plombières, and Aix (*all property of the state*).

COURTS OF LAW. There are 28 courts of Appeal.

ELECTRIC TELEGRAPHS. Gross Receipts £3,876,272; for private messages £212,600.

LIBRARIES, 338.

MONTS DE PIÉTÉ, 44, of which 4 make advances gratuitously. Income they bring in is about £20,000.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY nominally 700, but as one member may represent more than one constituency, the actual number is 660. Number of electors 10,104,023. The number of Deputies in the empire was 283.

POST-OFFICE. Gross expenses £1,709,934. Balance in the treasury £2,166,337.

SAVINGS BANKS 450, holding a capital of £280,000, and a reserve fund of £180,000. Also 4,721 societies of Mutual Aid, with a capital of 1½ million sterling, and a reserve of £300,000.

SCHOOLS and PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. There are 82,135 establishments of primary instruction and 4,731,946 pupils; and 15 universities. Before the Franco-Prussian war the University of Strasbourg made one more. There are also several schools of special instruction, as L'Ecole d'Athènes, des Beaux Arts, des Chartes, de Dessin, des Langues Orientales, des Mines, des Ponts et Chaussées, de Rome, the Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers, the Conservatoire de Music, with military and naval schools.

SCIENTIFIC and LITERARY INSTITUTIONS: L'Institut de France, Museum of Natural History, Bureau des Longitude, and the Observatoire (Paris and Marseilles).

THEATRES (licensed), 72, of which 22 are in Paris.

COLONIAL.

Algiers is reckoned an integral part of France. Population 3 millions.

In *Africa*: Senegal and Goree, Ile de la Réunion, S. Marie (*Madagascar*), Mayotte.

America: Martinique, Gaudeloupe, Guiana, St. Pierre.

Asia: Pondicherry, Karikal, Yanaon, Mahé, Chandernagore, and Cochin-China.

Ocean: Marquesas, New Caledonia, the islands of Pomoton, Wallis, Gambier, and Toubouai.

Making a total population of 3¼ millions.

ECCLIASTICAL.

France and its colonies divided into 90 dioceses, having 17 archbishops and 73 bishops. Salary of Abp. of Paris £2000 a year, of the other archbishops £800; salary of a bishop, £600. Six of the prelates are cardinals. Each archbishop has 3 vicars-general and each bishop 2, altogether there are 177 vicars-general. There are 669 canons, 3424 curés or vicars, and 29,971 curates. A canon has a salary varying from £64 to £96 a year; a curé from £48 to £60; and a curate £8 a year. Besides the above there are 8050 vicariats with salaries from £12 to £20 a year.

There are 82 large and 130 smaller seminaries for the education of the clergy, with 27,290 pupils; 22 nunneries, 105 Reformed consistories, with a seminary at Montauban, and before the war another at Strasbourg.

FISCAL.

COINAGE. In 1869 there were 173 million francs coined in Paris.

DEBT. Before the Franco-Prussian war was £580 millions sterling. The late Emperor increased it nearly three-fold. Indemnity to Prussia £200 millions, paid by September, 1873. Present debt £748,700,000.

EXPENDITURE (1869-70). £84,035,164, of which £27,439,604 was for Public Debt.

DOTATIONS. Emperor had £88,000 a year, M. Thiers only £2000. The present members of the National Assembly receive no salaries.

EXPORTS. Merchandise £105,680,000; specie £23,512,706.

IMPORTS. Merchandise £97,040,000; specie £21,304,100.

REVENUE (1869-70). £83,970,624, of which £7,819,769 were duties (£902,728 being on salt.)

TAXES. Before the Franco-Prussian war amounted to £84 millions sterling, of which £26,134,408 went to pay the interest and amortisation of the public debt, £1,060,000 the civil list, and £45,377,328 the public salaries.

GEOGRAPHICAL. *See CIVIL, MARITIME.*

AREA before the war 201,578 square miles, present area 195,818 square miles.

DEPARTMENTS before the war, 89; arrondissements 373; cantons 2938; communes 37,510. Three-fourths of the communes had a population under 1000, and half had a population under 500. Each commune ought to have had a school of primary instruction, but 11,000 of them had no such provision. Each department was under a préfet, each arrondissement under a sous-préfet, each commune under a maire. Present number of departments 85.

The part ceded to Germany consists of one-eighth of the département of the Meurthe, a canton-and-a-half of the département of the Vosges, all the department of Haut Rhin except three half cantons, and the entire department of Bas Rhin.

POPULATION before the war 38,067,000; present population 36,451,000. Marriages 305,203; births 894,710, of which 74,633 were illegitimate. Deaths 781,550, of which 147,071 were under 12 months of age.

RAILWAYS 12,500 statute miles. Receipts £18,416,044. Passengers 90 millions, of which 112 were killed and 61 injured by accidents. In 100 passengers, the first-class = 10, second-class 20, third class, 70.

RIVERS (chief) 5, viz., The Meuse, Rhone, Garonne, Loire, and Seine. The Rhine now belongs to Germany. River navigation 5500 miles, besides 2900 miles of canals.

ROADS. 28 routes nationales, 97 routes départementales. Total length 23,750 miles (besides routes vicinales).

MARITIME.

All France is divided into 5 préfetures, subdivided into arrondissements, sous-arrondissements, quartiers, and sous-quartiers.

Sailing vessels 14,747, tonnage 900,317. Steam vessels 345, tonnage 15,092. Total vessels 15,092, tonnage 985,235.

Pinnace boats 10,000, employing 60,000 men.

SEA-FRONTAGE 1739 statute miles.

SEA-PORTS 400. The chief (in order of importance) are Marseilles, Havre, Bordeaux, Nantes, Rouen, Dunkirk, Cette, Calais, Dieppe, Boulogne, Toulon, Caen, Harfleur, Arles, and Brest.

SHIPS employed in the import trade 30,000 (3½ million tons); in the export trade 26,000 (2½ million tons). For inland navigation 95,247 boats (3,389,983 tons) and employing 500,000 men.

MILITARY.

ARMY before the war (on paper) consisted of 654,247 men, of which 217,261 were in reserve; Cavalry 100,221; Artillery 66,132; Engineers 15,443; Medical Staff, Farriers, and other camp servants 17,536; Gendarmerie 25,688; Officers 1,841; Equipage 15,829; number of Horses 143,238. In Algeria 59,651.

HOSPITALS (military) 56, besides the Hôtel des Invalides.

MANUFACTURES OF FIREARMS 4, viz., St. Etienne, Mutzig (near Strasbourg), Tulle, and Châtellerauld. Arsenals engaged in the preparation and storage of gun carriages 8; for the construction of artillery 8 others; and 18 for dépôts and repairs.

Regimental Schools of arms 3, viz., at Arras, Montpellier, and Versailles. Before the late war Metz formed a fourth.

N.B. Before the war all France was divided into 22 military divisions, each commanded by a general of division.

NAVY.

Vessels of war 456, of which 246 are armed. Cannons 8550; horse-power 106,173; men 38,375 during peace, but during war 60,000 may be called out.

There are 22,400 marines in peace and 26,879 in war. Custom-house officers, and coastguards-men 25,500.

Depôts for marine artillery 6; foundries 3; manufactures for projectiles 2.

WAR.

Franco-Prussian (1870-1). German losses 103,532, of which 4,500 were officers.

French prisoners of war 700,000, of which 100,000 were interned in Belgium and Switzerland, and 180,000 in Paris.

N.B. 90,000 prisoners of war at Sedan, 170,000 at Metz (Oct. 28th.)

The *German Army* in France amounted to 800,000 men.

The war lasted 6 months to a day, from July 28th, 1870 to January 28th, 1871.

QUESTIONS

SET BY THE COMMISSIONERS IN THE CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINATIONS.

WITH REFERENCES TO THEIR ANSWERS.

What is the "Salic Law"? Give an instance of its operation (*p. 440*).

What causes principally led to the first French Revolution? (*p. 279*).

In the year 1224 there was a war with France; what led to it, and what were the results? (*p. 65*).

What was the Triple Alliance in the reign of Charles II.? (*p. 216*).

In 1756 a war broke out with France; what is this war called in history? Describe its origin, and its first operations and results (*p. 258, &c.*)

State briefly the occasions on which the following battles were fought:

Corunna (*p. 358*), Oudenarde (*p. 226*).

In whose reign did the following eminent persons flourish and for what were they respectively famous?

Joan of Arc (*p. 110 and 112*), Du Guesclin (*p. 95—97*), Murat (*p. 385*).

State who were the parties engaged in the following battles, and which were victorious:

Cressy (*p. 79*), Blenheim (*p. 225*).

What wars were ended by the peace of Ryswick (*p. 223*), Versailles (*p. 276*), and Utrecht? (*p. 230*). State the principal terms of each treaty, and whether they were advantageous to England or not.

What are the chief periods of French literature? Name some of the most celebrated authors in each period. *ANS.—First period (p. 48), Second period (p. 185), Third period (p. 239—242), Last period (p. 409, 410).*

Who are the chief tragic poets of France? Name some of their greatest works. What are the chief characteristics of the French drama as compared with the English? (*p. 237*).

Mention the most important works of the following authors, and the period at which they flourished:

Montesquieu (*p. 271*), Voltaire (*p. 269*), Madame de Staël (*p. 388*), Lamartine (*p. 411*), J. J. Rousseau (*p. 270*), Molière (*p. 238*).

Who were the chief "Encyclopædist" writers? (*p. 268*). What was their influence on the times? (*p. 281*).

Name the chief masters of pulpit oratory in the 17th and 18th centuries (*p. 241*); and the chief political orators who flourished at the end of the 18th, and beginning of the 19th centuries? (*p. 300*).

Who was the author of the Provincial Letters? For what purpose were they written? (*p. 245*).

Trace the influence of the "English School" on modern French literature (*p. 409*).

What writers belong to the Classic (*p. 174*) and Romantic schools? (*p. 409, 410*).

What are the chief characteristics of each school?

Sketch briefly the life and character of Francis I. of France (*p. 136, &c.*).

Write a short life of Louis XI. of France (*p. 115*), and Charles the Rash of Burgundy (*p. 118*).

Show how the character and policy of the one was likely to strengthen, and of the other to weaken, his hereditary power (*p. 118*).

Compare France under Louis XIV. with England under Charles II. and James II. (*p. 220*).

Give some account of the Seven-Years' War (*p. 258*). What nations took part in it, and what were the objects which each sought to gain? (*p. 258, 259*). Mention the treaty by which it was concluded, and its principal terms (*p. 261*).

What wars were concluded by the following peaces or treaties? Give the date and the most important conditions settled by them:

Aix-la-Chapelle (*p. 256*), Amiens (*p. 346*), Cambray (*p. 139*), Utrecht (*p. 230*), Westphalia (*p. 206*), Versailles (*p. 276*).

Write a short biography of Cardinal Richelieu (*p. 190*).

What was the Pragmatic Sanction? (*p. 68, 113*).

Explain, and state the origin of the terms, Montagnards (*p. 308*), Girondists (*p. 301*).

Mention the dates, the names of the commanders on each side, the occasion, and the result of the following battles:

Marengo (*p. 344*), Pavia (*p. 138*), Rocroy (*p. 205*), Dettingen (*p. 255*), Salamanca (*p. 368*).

What causes led to the revival of the spirit of commerce in the Middle Ages? (*p. 41, 44*). Where was it first developed? (*p. 44*).

When did the French monarchy first become powerful in Europe? Trace its growth (*p. 75*).

Give the date and circumstances of the "Sicilian Vespers" (*p. 71*).

What is the Salic Law? (*p. 78*).

What were the objects of the League of Cambray (*p. 133*), the Edict of Nantes (*p. 178*), the Treaty of Tilsit (*p. 356*).

Write a short biography of the following persons:

Cardinal de Mazarin (*p. 205, &c.*), Mirabeau (*p. 300*), Robespierre (*p. 314*).

Mention the dates, the names of the commanders on each side, and the political results of the following battles:

Rocroy (*p. 205*), Nancy (*p. 124*), Pavia (*p. 138*), Lutzen (*p. 370*), Fontenoy (*p. 256*), Jena (*p. 354*).

What were the principal causes of the French Revolution? (*p. 279*).

Explain briefly the political and social effects of the Crusades (*p. 41*).

When did England acquire possession of Canada, and from whom was it taken? (*p. 261*).

Who were the Girondists and why were they so called? (*p. 301*). When did their influence cease? (*p. 313*).

What was the professed object of the French Directory? (*p. 325*).

What was the nature of the Act of Germanic Confederation, framed by the Congress of Vienna in 1815? (*p. 374*).

State briefly the circumstances under which the following battles were fought?

Leipsic (*p. 370*), Hohenlinden (*p. 344*), Albuera (*p. 368*), Arcola (*p. 336*), Valmy (*p. 306*).

Where and when did the following eminent persons flourish, and for what were they respectively famous?

Marshal Ney (*p. 383*), Lafayette (*p. 395*), Chateaubriand (*p. 413*), Madame de Staël (*p. 388*).

What were the principal causes which led to the French Revolution? (*p. 279*).

Who were the Jacobins, and why were they so called? (*p. 299*). Give a brief sketch of the lives and characters of three of the leading men among them.

Ans. *g.e., Robespierre (p. 320), Danton (p. 320), Marat (p. 315), Mirabeau (p. 300), Lafayette (p. 395), Tallien (p. 323), Dumouriez (p. 311, 312), &c.*

What causes led to the war between England and America in 1775? What part did France take in this war? How were the matters in dispute finally adjusted? (*p. 275*).

Mention the dates, the contracting parties, and the most important conditions of the following peaces or treaties:

Tilsit (*p. 356*), Amiens (*p. 346*), Ryswick (*p. 223*), Campo Formio (*p. 338*).

Give a short account, with dates of the following sieges:

Saragossa (*p. 357*), Ciudad Rodrigo (*p. 368*), Antwerp (*p. 399*), Rochelle (*p. 193*).

Who were the parties to the Quadruple Alliance in 1718? Where was it signed, and what were its provisions? (*p. 249*).

What was the Holy Alliance of 1815, and why so called? (*p.* 382).

When did the following eminent persons flourish, and for what were they respectively famous?

Chateaubriand (*p.* 413), Necker (*p.* 275), Murat (*p.* 383), Lamartine (*p.* 406, 411), Laplace (*p.* 284), Marshal Berthier (*p.* 359).

What are the present colonial possessions of France? (*p.* 439).

Write a short account of the French Revolution. (*p.* 285, &c.)

Who were the parties to the Quadruple Alliance in 1718? Where was it signed, and what were its provisions? (*p.* 249).

What was the Holy Alliance of 1815, and why so called? (*p.* 382).

State briefly, with dates, the circumstances with which the following battles were fought, the names of the commanders on each side, and the results: Busaco (*p.* 366), Jemmappes (*p.* 308), Waterloo (*p.* 376), and Millesimo (*p.* 335).

Name the important European treaties made in the following years:

1795 (*p.* 327), 1797 (*p.* 338), 1814 (*p.* 373). Mention the powers which concurred in them, and the principal articles of agreement.

Who were the following persons? Mention the most important facts connected with them:

Junot (*p.* 357), Murat (*p.* 383), Ney (*p.* 383), Danton (*p.* 320), Godoi (*p.* 356).

Explain the terms Chouan, (*p.* 345), Montaigne (*p.* 308), Gironde (*p.* 301).

Give a brief sketch of Napoleon's Russian expedition, and describe fully any one of the actions in it. (*p.* 362).

Give the dates, and state briefly the circumstances under which the following battles were fought:

Trafalgar (*p.* 352), Vittoria (*p.* 369), Wagram (*p.* 359), Jemmappes (*p.* 308).

Name the important European treaties made in the years 1795 (*p.* 327) and 1814 (*p.* 373). Mention the powers which concurred in them, and the principal articles of agreement.

Who were the following persons? Mention the most important facts connected with them:

Turgot (*p.* 273), Mirabeau (*p.* 300), Malesherbes (*p.* 274), Don Pedro (*p.* 94), Pichegru (*p.* 347), Godoi (*p.* 306).

What are the colonial possessions of France? When were they severally acquired? (*p.* 439). Write a brief account of the acquisition of Algeria (*p.* 309).

Who were the contending parties in the following battles, and what were their results:

Dettingen (*p.* 225), Quatre Bras (*p.* 375), Talavera (*p.* 366), Albuera (*p.* 368).

Give the dates of the following events:

The French Revolution (*p.* 285),

Coronation of Charlemagne (*p.* 21).

State any particulars which you know as to the history of the Crimean war (*p.* 421).

Mention any beneficial changes accomplished at the commencement of the first French revolution (*pp.* 297, 327).

State fully the benefits which resulted from the crusades (*p.* 40).

What were the claims of Edward I. to the throne of France? (*p.* 78).

State briefly the occasions on which the following battles were fought, and discuss more fully their political results:—Agincourt (*p.* 103), Dettingen (*p.* 255), Jena (*p.* 354), Nancy (*p.* 124), Pavia (*p.* 138).

What wars were ended by the following peaces:—Pyrenees (*p.* 212), Bretigny (*p.* 85), Westphalia (*p.* 206), Utrecht (*p.* 230). Give the dates and principal articles of agreement.

When did England gain possession of Canada? From whom was it taken? (*p.* 261).

On what pretext did Charles VIII. of France invade Italy? (*p.* 129).

When did the English power in France come to an end? (*p.* 147).

When did Great Britain become possessed of India and Canada? (*p.* 261).

Name the principal battles in the Peninsula, with the years in which they were fought (*p.* 365).

What was the cause of the American war? What part did France take in it? How did it terminate? (p. 275).

State briefly, with dates, the occasions on which the following battles were fought:

Ramillies (p. 226), Poitiers (p. 84), Navarino (p. 389), Austerlitz (p. 353), Dettingen (p. 255).

State briefly, with dates, the occasions on which the following battles were fought:

Malplaquet (p. 227), Salamanca (p. 368), Agincourt (p. 103).

Account for the possession of the Canadas by the crown of England (p. 261).

State very briefly, with dates, the occasions on which the following battles took place:

Oudenarde (p. 226), Poitiers (p. 84), Vittoria (p. 369), Dettingen (p. 255), Toulouse (p. 371).

Give the dates and principal articles of agreement of the following treaties:

Utrecht (p. 230), Pilnitz (p. 296), Paris, 1815 (p. 383).

When did England gain possession of Canada, and from whom was it taken? (p. 261).

What was the Triple Alliance in the reign of Charles II.? (p. 216).

State briefly, with dates, the occasions on which the following battles were fought:

Ramillies (p. 226), Salamanca (p. 368), Aboukir (p. 341), Quatre-Bras (p. 375).

Give the dates and principal articles of agreement of the following treaties.

Westphalia (p. 206), Versailles (p. 276), Luneville (p. 345).

What was the particular creed of the Montagnards? (p. 307). Why were they so called? (p. 308). Give a brief sketch of the lives and characters of some of the leading men among them—*Robespierre* (p. 320), *Danton* (p. 320), *Marat* (p. 315).

Describe the course of events in France from the opening of the States General to the taking of the Bastille (p. 286—289).

Give some account of the celebrated retreat of Moreau in 1796 (p. 335).

What important treaties were made in the following years:

1795 (p. 327), 1807 (p. 356), 1815 (p. 374).

Mention the powers which concurred in them, and the principal articles of agreement.

Give the dates, and state briefly the circumstances under which the following battles were fought:

Millesimo (p. 335), Solferino (p. 424), Bautzen (p. 370), Borodino (p. 362).

Who were the following persons? Mention when they flourished, and the most important facts connected with them:

Cavaignac (p. 416, 418), Lafayette (p. 395), Brissot (p. 308), Marshal Ney (p. 383), Barthélemy (p. 285), Pichegru (p. 347), Godoi (p. 356).

What obstacles arose in carrying out the provisions of the peace of Amiens? How long did it continue? (p. 346) By whom was war again declared, and on what grounds? (p. 347).

Give some account of the following congresses and conferences, stating when they took place, what powers were represented, and what were the results:

Erfurt (p. 357), Presburg (p. 353), Pilnitz (p. 296), Radstadt (p. 230), Vienna (p. 255, 360), Villafranca (p. 424).

Who were the following persons? Mention the most important facts connected with them:—Caillet (p. 87), George Cadoudal (p. 345), Simonet Cabouche (p. 102), Don Pedro (p. 94), Duguesclin (p. 95, &c.)

Mention in order the most memorable engagements which took place in the Peninsular War, and describe any one of them minutely (p. 365).

NOTE. In these questions the "*Treaty of 1814*" may mean the deed of abdication signed by Napoléon at Fontainebleau on the 6th of April, and sometimes called the "*treaty of Fontainebleau*" (p. 371); or it may mean the "*Peace of Paris*," signed the 30th of May (p. 373.)

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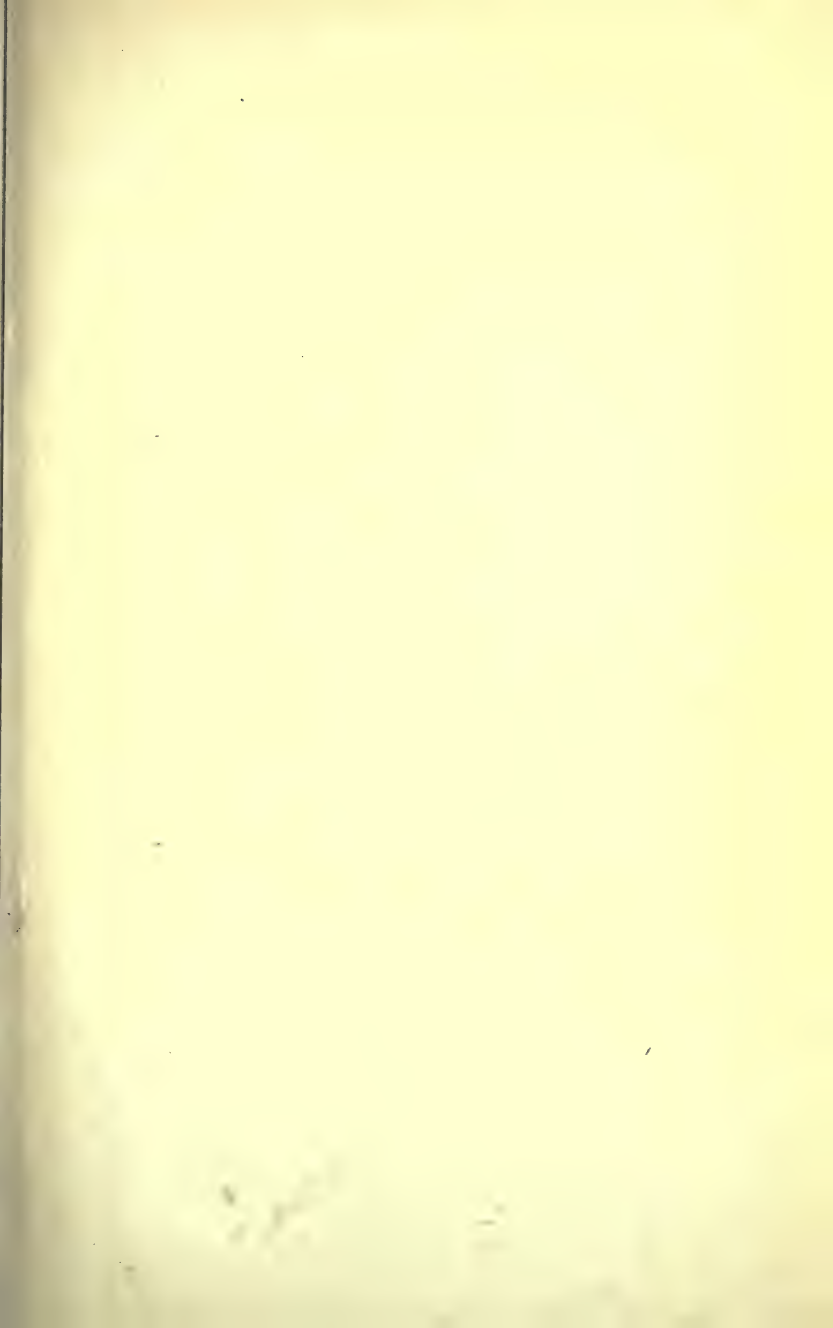
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